CH
6
No 3

WELFARE in REVIEW

AN REFUGEE PROGRAM STAFF · CHILDREN'S BUREAU · BUREAU OF
FF · BUREAU OF FAMILY SERVICES · OFFICE OF JUVENILE DELINQUE
LDREN'S BUREAU · BUREAU OF FAMILY SERVICES · CUBAN REFUGEE
CE OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND YOUTH DEVELOPMENT · CUB
AN REFUGEE PROGRAM STAFF · CHILDREN'S BUREAU · BUREAU OF
ILY SERVICES · OFFICE OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND YOUTH D
LDREN'S BUREAU · BUREAU OF FAMILY SERVICES · CUBAN REFUGEE
ICE OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND YOUTH DEVELOPMENT · CUB
AN REFUGEE PROGRAM STAFF · CHILDREN'S BUREAU · BUREAU OF
ILY SERVICES · OFFICE OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND YOUTH D
LDREN'S BUREAU · BUREAU OF FAMILY SERVICES · CHILDREN'S BUREA
FICE OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND YOUTH DEVELOPMENT · CUB
BAN REFUGEE PROGRAM STAFF · CHILDREN'S BUREAU · BUREAU OF
MILY SERVICES · OFFICE OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND YOUTH D

BOSTON
UNIVERSITY
JUN 7 1966
LIBRARIES

N-SW

APRIL
1966
Vol 4-No 4

U. S.
DEPARTMENT
OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION,
AND
WELFARE

Welfare
Administration

U. S.
DEPARTMENT
OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION,
AND WELFARE

Welfare Administration

Children's
Bureau

Bureau of Family
Services

Office of Juvenile
Delinquency and
Youth Development

Cuban Refugee
Program Staff

WELFARE in REVIEW

Welfare in Review is the official monthly publication of the Welfare Administration. Statements in Review articles do not necessarily reflect official policies of the Welfare Administration.

Welfare in Review is prepared in the Division of Research, Office of the Commissioner, Welfare Administration.

Suggestions or comments should be addressed to Ruth C. Galaid, Editor, Welfare in Review, Welfare Administration, 330 Independence Avenue, S.W., Washington, D.C. 20201.

Contents of the publication are not copyrighted; any items may be reprinted but citation of Welfare in Review as the source is requested.

Use of funds for printing this publication has been approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget July 22, 1963.

Welfare in Review is for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. Price $3.00 per year; $1 additional for foreign mailing. 35 cents per single copy.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

JOHN W. GARDNER, Secretary

Welfare Administration

ELLEN WINSTON, Commissioner

JOSEPH H. MEYERS, Deputy Commissioner

GENEVIEVE W. CARTER, Director
Division of Research

Volume 4 Number 4

APRIL 1966

In This Issue Page

Guaranteed Income Maintenance:
Negative Income Tax Plans 1
Helen O. Nicol
Notes:
Income and Community Participation 10
Marital Status, White and Nonwhite 13

Spanish-Americans of the Southwest:
Life Style Patterns 14
Robert G. Hayden
Publications of Interest 26
Program and Operating Statistics 27

GUARANTEED INCOME MAINTENANCE

A Discussion of Negative Income Tax Plans

Helen O. Nicol*

Theories to alleviate poverty based on a guaranteed minimum income have a long history, but never before have they aroused as much interest as they do today in discussions among economists, public administrators, and social workers. Two approaches currently advanced have been singled out for further intensive exploration as a tool in the war on poverty by the Council of Economic Advisors.[1] One approach recommended by the Council consists of greatly expanding the scope of public assistance programs in order to "make public assistance coverage more comprehensive and assure all recipients more adequate benefit levels."

Another approach--and the subject of this article--is based on the concept of a maintenance income through the mechanism of the Federal individual income tax system. Discussion centers on the negative income tax theories of the four most prominent advocates of this approach--Robert J. Lampman, Edward E. Schwartz, Robert Theobald, and Milton Friedman. They have read these summaries and have agreed to publication.

In its simplest form, the negative income tax mechanism involves government cash payments to families and individuals whose incomes fall below the Federal personal income-taxpaying level. The payments to the poor are calculated on the basis of the unused exemptions and deductions to which these nontaxpayers would be entitled if they were actually paying income taxes. In another form, also integrated into the income tax system, the payments are calculated on the basis of the amount by which a family's or an individual's income falls below an officially determined standard of minimum subsistence.

Either method is equivalent to using the tax system in reverse. The implications of this negative income tax approach are many and far-reaching for both the social and the public finance structure of the Nation. For the poor the effect of such a plan would be a minimum income floor for all, including those families and individuals not now receiving social security or public assistance payments. For the economy, the effect would be a greater redistribution of income--from those contributing to Federal revenues through income and corporation taxes, to those not financially able to contribute--with attendant changes in spending, saving, and investing propensities. For the fiscal and legislative structure, the effect might be to reduce Federal-State grants now given for public assistance programs, while largely shifting that part of the cost of relief payments now borne by State and local governments to the Federal Government. Alternatively, the effect could be to free financial resources of State welfare agencies for expanded social services.

The several income maintenance tax approach theories are based on different philosophical premises. Their proponents differ on the standards to be applied, on the exact methods to be used, and on the degree to which the proposed schemas should re-

*Division of Research, Welfare Administration.
For references, see end of article.

place other social insurance provided the poor. Lampman[2] and Friedman[3] are best known for their "negative income tax" plans, Schwartz[4] for his "family security benefit" plan, and Theobald[5] for his "basic economic security" plan.

Each of the proponents of the negative income tax approach to income maintenance believes that in certain respects his plan would be an improvement over the present machinery for aiding the poor. Whatever the particular plan it would at best close the poverty gap by moving the poor above the poverty line; at the least, it would put a minimum income floor under all the poor, irrespective of their geographic location or jurisdiction. Under all circumstances, they believe it would improve equity in the present tax structure; it would simplify the means test and thus conform more closely to modern concepts of social justice. The proponents also believe that their plans would be relatively simple and efficient to administer, as the negative income tax mechanism would be a part of the income tax mechanism of the Federal Government.

The advocates of this income maintenance approach also believe that it would be economical to operate, as it should reduce costs of current social insurance and public assistance programs. In its most extreme form, cost reduction would result from abolishing all other social programs directed at special groups, such as OASDI payments, farm price supports, and public housing.

Various objections are being raised to a Federally guaranteed income approach to poverty, and many questions remain unanswered. Some critics point to its possible adverse effects on incentives to the poor to work and on their will to become self-reliant. Others express concern about the political implications of the centralization and control of all social welfare functions in the Federal Government, with attendant increase in Federal power. Still others object to the potentially high cost to the taxpayer. Of greatest concern to some thoughtful observers are the consequences that such proposals would have for present systems of providing social services, according to need, on a selective basis.

DIMENSIONS OF THE PROBLEM

The Poverty-Income Gap

An estimated 34.1 million people lived in poverty in 1964, according to the Social Security Administration poverty income standard.[6] Their total money income was about $20 billion, of which $12 billion were earnings and property income, about $4 billion social insurance (mainly OASDI) payments, and $4.8 billion Federal, State, and local public assistance payments. The $12 billion difference between the approximately $20 billion they received as income and the estimated $32 billion they should have received in order to rise above poverty is the poverty-income gap. To narrow this gap--and eventually to close it entirely--represents the monetary problem of the war on poverty. It is on this problem that negative income tax and other guaranteed income maintenance plans focus attention.

Poor Families and the Tax System

Almost by definition, the poor do not pay income taxes because their incomes are usually below taxable levels. But as long as they are unable to pay income taxes, they are also unable to take full advantage of the built-in aid to families in our tax system which permits personal deductions and exemptions for children. The poor, however, bear a relatively heavy burden of consumption taxes (sales, food, excises, etc.), which are flat rate taxes, as well as property taxes. These taxes take a heavier bite out of a small income than a large income. The working poor may also pay payroll taxes. Our tax system as presently constituted, therefore, discriminates against the poor because it is considerably regressive at low-income levels.

This will be seen from the following example: The personal exemption plus the minimum standard deduction in the personal Federal income tax for a child (amounting to $700) is equivalent to a

subsidy per child ranging from $98 to $490, depending on the taxpayer's income bracket.[7] This is, however, of little help to the poor family whose income is below income tax levels. Moreover, the larger the family, the higher the relative burden of consumption taxes it must assume and the greater its relative loss of child subsidies under income taxes. As Lampman points out, a family of four with an annual income of $3,000 is, from the standpoint of the present Federal income tax structure, in the same position as the family of eight with $3,000 income: Neither pays an income tax, but the burden of consumption taxes rests more heavily on the large family.

An important part of the income of the poor (about 40 percent) is from transfer payments. Of the $40 billion spent on public transfer payments in fiscal year 1965, an estimated $20 billion went to people "who were or would otherwise have been below the poverty income line. These payments helped to raise some three million households out of poverty, but about 12 million units still received insufficient income to meet the minimal living levels now used to define poverty. People who remained poor received about $10 billion of all public transfer payments."[8]

Economists assume that transfer payments encourage the redistribution of income by shifting income from higher to lower income groups, from taxpayers to nontaxpayers, from younger to older workers, and from productive members of the economy to nonproductive. If unused exemptions and deductions were paid out in the form of a negative tax allowance, this would be equivalent to a positive transfer from the taxpayer to the nontaxpayer, while increasing the latter's transfer income. Such increased transfer payments should help to counteract the regressivity of the tax system as a whole and thereby improve its equity aspects.[9]

INCOME-MAINTENANCE PROPOSALS

Lampman's Plans

Of the several income-maintenance plans currently under discussion, Lampman's is the most comprehensive and explicit. All of his proposals represent tax reform plans. Their relative desirability, according to Lampman, depends on the importance of three not necessarily inconsistent objectives: (1) improving tax equity, (2) narrowing the poverty-income gap, and (3) replacing public assistance as a method of providing income to the poor.

His plans are of two basic types. The first type is mainly designed to improve the equity of the tax system while also increasing the income of the poor. This type involves the negative-rate income tax method and requires only a moderate change in the tax law. The second type is mainly designed to raise the income of the poor by narrowing the poverty gap, while at the same time improving tax equity. This type involves the poverty-income standard method and will require considerable tax reform measures.

One plan of the first type and three plans of the second type are presented here. They are fundamentally static models which assume no changes in the earnings of the poor and no changes in the poverty-income gap over time.

Type I

This is Lampman's simplest and also his lowest-cost model. Families and individuals below the Federal personal income tax paying level would be allowed to claim 14 percent of their unused exemptions and deductions. The rationale for the 14 percent is that it represents the lowest rate in the present Federal income tax law. The plan would cost about $2 billion a year and would narrow the income gap by about one-sixth. The net cost would be somewhat smaller because of expected savings on public assistance expenditures, as persons now receiving assistance would be given subsidies in the form of tax allowances.

A drawback to this plan, according to Lampman, is that it would include everybody not currently paying Federal income taxes, and payments might be made to some people who are not poor in terms of total income (or assets) but only in terms

of taxable income. This results from the method used: The tax base is calculated by subtracting adjusted gross income (taxable income before exemptions and personal deductions) from the total of exemptions and deductions. New constraints would therefore have to be applied to assure that tax allowances would be paid only to persons who are poor by reference to the official poverty-income standard.

Type II: 50-Percent Plan

This model represents one of several alternative formulations, but is the one which Lampman considers the best compromise. It is not related to exemptions and deductions under tax law but to established minimum needs in relation to income. It involves tax allowances based on a negative tax rate of a flat 50 percent, which is applied to the family's poverty-income gap. The base of the tax would be calculated by subtracting a family's total income--but excluding public assistance income--from the poverty-line income for a family of a given size, composition, and urban or rural residence. A family of four, and with no income, would be guaranteed an income of $1,565 annually and an individual with no income an annual income of $729. In other words, the tax allowances would put a minimum-subsistence floor under the poor. Those who earned income would have a higher post-allowance income. For example, a family of four with a $2,000 income would receive a $500 allowance for a total income of $2,500. According to this plan, about 60 percent of the tax allowances would go to families with children, and 40 percent to one and two-person families (including 25 percent to aged persons).

Lampman estimates the cost of this 50-percent model at about $8 billion annually (including public assistance) but, since he believes that public assistance expenditures could be reduced by $3 billion, net costs would be about $5 billion. This would narrow the poverty gap of almost $12 billion by about two-fifths.

Type II: 100-Percent Plan

The question may be asked: Why raise the income of the poor by only 50 percent of the poverty-income gap? Lampman shows that a 100-percent model would, by definition, close the poverty gap, but its cost would probably be prohibitive. He estimates the cost of such a plan at $24 billion at a minimum--or double the present income poverty gap--and possibly as high as $30 billion. The actual cost of the 100-percent plan would depend on the number of people whose incentive to work would be reduced, because such a high income-maintenance level would, for millions of persons, be equal to or in excess of their earnings. On the other hand, the tax burden of the 100-percent plan on the taxpayers would be of such magnitude that their incentive to work, save, and invest might be undermined--quite aside from the problem of political feasibility. Any plans, therefore, designed to close the poverty gap completely through a tax-transfer system must be rejected.

Lampman explored several variations of his preferred 50-percent model. These would result in different distributions of benefits among income classes and in different costs to the government. Depending on the degree of reliance on public assistance, proportionate costs among Federal, State, and local governments would also vary. Lampman also developed constraints that would assure that tax allowances were paid only to people who were poor in reference to the poverty-income standard.

All of the Lampman Type II plans would partially replace public assistance, with the exception of one variation which, according to him, depends on public assistance to supplement the tax allowances.

Type II: Flat-Rate Plan

According to this model, a flat tax allowance of $750 would be paid to a family up to $1,500 of their original earned income. After their income had reached $1,500, the tax allowance would fall 50 cents for every dollar earned. The allowance would fall to zero when income

reached $3,000. This plan would be particularly suitable for the typical families that already had some income, generally the working poor or OASDI recipients. The total cost of this plan would be less than that of the 50-percent plan, and the benefits would go primarily to families in which the head had some income from employment or social insurance. Interestingly, Lampman thinks that this plan might be a desirable alternative to a higher minimum wage. He also feels that it would "harmonize" with public assistance programs by concentrating more of the tax allowances on those poor families who do not now receive public assistance payments. On the other hand, for this flat-rate model, public assistance payments to the poorest of the poor would remain imperative.

Concerning the methodology for his models, Lampman shows that it is not strictly necessary to use the poverty-income standard as the base for calculations of the tax allowances of Type II plans. Similar to Type I, above, the total of exemptions and deductions could be used, since it happens that for a four-person family these are about equal to the poverty-income line in dollar terms and are still reasonably close for family sizes of two to six persons. For single persons and large families, however, adjustments would have to be made.

Administration and Operation

An important characteristic of these plans is that they are intended to be principally self-administered. In Lampman's schema, the applicant for a tax allowance would fill out a tax form indicating income and family size. He would be given a table of tax allowances, and he would mark down the amount due him for a family of his income and size combination. He would then receive a check in the mail from the Internal Revenue Service, similar to the way tax refunds are handled. The problem of timing, in some cases, as taxpayers changed from negative to positive rates during the course of the year, would need to receive special attention. Lampman feels this could be handled in a similar manner to the administration of OASDI and veterans' pensions. Undoubtedly, numerous subregional offices of the Internal Revenue Service would have to be established to handle the large numbers of applications for tax allowances.

Another important aspect of the administration and operation of tax allowance claims would be the determination of eligibility. Definitions would have to be developed for those eligible to file for a tax allowance, for those who could be claimed as dependents, and for the type of income that would have to be reported. Lampman gives detailed guidelines for these crucial definitions.

In a simple Type II case, negative rates taxation would work as follows: Lampman assumes a family consisting of a mother and three children. The mother's only income is $1,000 from wages. The tax law grants her the equivalent of $3,000 of personal exemptions and minimum standard deductions (personal exemptions of $600 per person and minimum standard deductions of $300 for the mother and $100 for each child). Consequently she has an income deficit of $2,000 ($3,000 of exemptions and deductions minus $1,000 of earnings). If the negative income tax rate is 50 percent, then her tax allowance would be $1,000 and her total income $2,000 ($1,000 tax allowance and $1,000 earnings). If her earnings increased to $2,000, her total income would rise to $2,500.

Work-Incentive Features

Lampman gives special attention to the complex problem of maintaining incentives for people who receive tax allowances to seek employment or to continue in employment. A practical plan must allow the working poor to keep a portion of their earnings above the income level at which they receive tax allowances, and yet tax allowances would have to be reduced progressively as wage-income rises to the level at which wage earners, by tax definition, will be self-supporting. Lampman's schedules of negative-tax rates and allowances, therefore, incorporate such an incremental income-taxing feature which

permits the working poor to retain earned additions to income up to the particular poverty line for a family of their size, beyond which existing positive income tax rates would continue to apply.

OTHER INCOME-MAINTENANCE PLANS

Schwartz's Plan

Schwartz's approach to income-maintenance is not based on tax equity or the fiscal approach but on his social work philosophy. He feels that the only "proper treatment of poverty" is to have the Federal government guarantee to every family and person sufficient income to maintain a healthful and decent standard of living. This would be their constitutional and civil right.

The most satisfactory way to implement such a guarantee is through a modification and expansion of the Federal income tax mechanism. In this respect, his plan is similar to Lampman's: Any family or individual whose expected income falls below a government-determined standard of minimum income would receive a "family security benefit" (his name for a negative-rate tax allowance) for the amount of the difference. On the other hand, if the expected income exceeded the standard, he would pay a positive income tax as under present tax law procedures. After a year's operation of this plan, adjustments would be made for the difference between estimated and actual income, similar to the method used for individual income tax returns.

The minimum guaranteed income standard would be determined initially by a Presidential commission, which would also decide on a schedule of allowances for families of given size and age composition. In addition, the commission would make adjustments in the schedule for regional and urban-rural residence. Provision would be made in the legislation for periodic adjustment of minimum guaranteed income payments to make them conform to changes in the cost of living.

As do other proponents of guaranteed income maintenance plans, Schwartz considers the public reaction to making payments to families who are poor according to current income standards but not necessarily according to the assets they hold. Schwartz would favor the establishment of minimum income rates to be expected from capital investments. Persons claiming a "family security benefit" would be required to report at least these minimums as (imputed) income, whether received or not.[10]

To the question, "Can the Nation afford such a program?," Schwartz gives rough estimates based on different levels of income maintenance standards and also points to the possible measure of expressing the total cost as a certain percentage of Gross National Product--7 percent, he feels, would be tolerable. When United States welfare expenditures as a percent of national income are compared, in relative terms to those of other industrialized and developed nations, he finds that the United States is doing less for its poor by this measure than the other countries.[11]

Schwartz estimates that the gross cost of his proposal, assuming benefits to a four-person, nonfarm family on the basis of the 1963 poverty line of the Council of Economic Advisers ($3,000 in 1962 prices), would be approximately $11 billion. This represents his lowest cost model. For models of higher minimum subsistence standards, costs would rise proportionately. At the level of the Social Security Administration "low-cost budget" ($3,955 in 1962 prices), Schwartz estimates gross costs to be roughly $23 billion. At the "modest but adequate" city workers' family budget of the Bureau of Labor Statistics ($5,000 in 1959 prices), Schwartz estimates gross costs to run as high as $38 billion. (Net costs would depend on whether any existing social welfare programs could be terminated.)

Schwartz has less conviction than Lampman about the necessity of incorporating a work-incentive feature into his models. He feels that for reasons of economy and administrative simplicity such a restraint should preferably be dispensed with, "unless and until experience indicates the need for it." However, a work-incentive feature may be neces-

sary, he believes, to meet the test of public debate. He would permit families to keep a portion of their earnings on a graduated scale so that up to a given income bracket, they would be financially better off with earnings than without. Once they had reached this income bracket through earnings alone, they would remain exempt of a positive income tax until a still higher bracket--$4,500 in his illustration--was attained. Positive taxes would then be paid on amounts of $4,500 and over. Schwartz believes that this type of work-incentive feature would entail substantial additional costs because it would narrow the tax base and thus reduce revenues.

Theobald's Plan

Theobald's approach to a guaranteed income maintenance plan is historic-societal and starts from the hypothesis that our present socioeconomic problems are the result of our success in attaining the stage of full industrial development. He argues that a guaranteed income is essential in the age of cybernetics, when automated productive processes and electronic computers combine to displace men. New techniques of income distribution will therefore have to be developed to insure to each person his absolute and constitutional right to sufficient resources to permit him a life of dignity as a full member of society.

This approach requires the establishment of an economic floor ("basic economic security") under each individual as an extension of the present social security system. The only limitation is U.S. citizenship or residence in the United States--the recipient of basic economic security should have resided in the United States for five consecutive years. Theobald stresses the necessity of an absolute guarantee and therefore proposes the passage of a constitutional amendment.

His mechanism for "basic economic security" is conceived as follows: The original aim of the exemption in the Federal income tax system was to insure that taxes were not paid on that portion of income required to provide a reasonable standard of living. This aim should be restored and tax exemptions should be raised immediately "to a level which would guarantee an untaxed income adequate for minimum subsistence." This, of course, would only protect those income groups that are paying Federal income taxes. To extend the protection to income groups below taxpaying levels, Theobald recommends that those whose incomes from earnings or from capital do not attain this level would then receive Federal government payments sufficient to raise their incomes to this level.

He suggests that this basic economic floor might be tentatively set at the start of operation of $1,000 for each adult and $600 for each child. Even though these levels of subsistence might seem low, Theobald estimates that about 20 million persons would immediately be covered. An even higher level of exemptions should not prove too much of a financial burden, as the magnitude of some higher level in terms of the productive capacity of the United States or its effect on the budget would not be too great.[12]

Too large a number of beneficiaries at the outset, however, would make the operation of this plan less efficient than it otherwise would be. In addition to determining the level of subsistence, adjustments would have to be made in the pattern of exemptions, by size and composition of family.

The operation of this plan, Theobald believes, would be very simple compared to the "present mosaic of measures--Social Security, unemployment compensation, welfare, 'stamp plans,' subsidies to housing." He thinks his plan would progressively replace all of these measures.

Theobald, as do other proponents, recommends a work-incentive feature to secure equity and to encourage acceptance. He would add a flat 10 percent of outside income (from earnings or capital assets) as a premium to the entitled payments. The allowance for a four-person family (husband, wife, two children), based on the family's exemptions of $1,000 for each adult and $600 for each child, would add up to $3,200.[13] If the family had no outside

income, this amount would be all they were entitled to. If, however, they had a private income of $2,000, their total income would be $3,400, computed as follows:

Private income	$2,000
Government payments	1,200
Total entitlement	3,200
Plus 10% of $2,000	200
Total income	$3,400

Theobald has recently proposed that an annual increase of 5 percent in exemption levels be included in the legislation so that the level of guaranteed income would rise as rapidly as possible toward a decent level of living.[14]

Friedman's Plan

Friedman starts from the premise that private charity is preferable to public charity and that voluntary action is preferable to compulsory action. But as long as large, impersonal communities increasingly dominate our society, Friedman will accept governmental action to alleviate poverty.

His second premise is that any program to help the poor should operate through the market mechanism but should not distort or impede its functioning. The third premise is that the government's role in the economy should be minimal. For these reasons, Friedman wants a technique which will help the poor without the need to resort to such governmental subventions as general old-age benefit and farm price support programs, minimum wage and "pro-union" legislation, tariffs, licensing provisions of crafts or professions, and the like.

These objectives would be accomplished through a "negative tax" based on the present tax system, similar to Lampman's proposal Type I. A person whose income fell below the Federal income tax-paying level would receive a subsidy, representing a percentage of his combined exemptions and deductions. The rates of the subsidy would be graduated similarly to tax rates above the exemptions. By this method, he feels, a floor would be established below which no person's income could fall--in his example, $300 per year (in 1961 prices)--the specific floor depending on "what the community could afford."

The problems of administration, Friedman thinks, would be minor, since negative-tax subsidies would be administered through the present income tax system. Furthermore, if his proposal were substituted for the present "collection of welfare measures," the total administrative burden would be reduced, "let alone the degree of [present] governmental intervention involved."

Friedman thinks that the gross costs of his negative-tax income plan could be reduced by approximately the total cost of current Federal, State, and local social and welfare expenditures, including old-age and other Social Security benefit payments, aid to families with dependent children, general assistance, farm price support programs, and public housing. He excludes the cost of veterans benefits, public health and hospital programs, and such indirect social costs as follow from minimum wage laws, tariffs, and licensing provisions.

Friedman concludes that a negative income-tax plan designed to supplement the incomes of the economy's 20 percent poorest consumer units in order to raise them to the lowest income level of the other poor would cost less than half of our current social expenditures.

With respect to the work incentive feature of his plan, Friedman writes: "Like any other measures to alleviate poverty, it reduces the incentives of those helped to help themselves, but it does not eliminate the initiative entirely as a system of supplementing income up to some fixed minimum would." He is concerned about the political feasibility of his proposal, as it depends on the willingness of taxpayers to impose higher taxes on themselves to pay subsidies to others. An unenlightened electorate might pervert this system to one in which the majority imposes taxes for its own benefit on an unwilling, wealthier minority.

CONCLUSION

The principle of the negative income tax has been explained. How different proponents have dealt with it, what they hope it will accomplish, and what they estimate the costs of specific proposals to be have also been shown.

Clearly, negative income tax theories are still tentative and, as an approach to poverty, have yet to be tested. Many lacunae need to be closed and much research needs to be done before the proposals summarized here might be shaped into practical policies for governmental action. Nevertheless, while awaiting a sharper definition and more specific formulation, the negative income tax approach indicates the general mood and direction of experimental thought toward the objective of alleviating poverty in the midst of our prosperous economy.

There is as yet no consensus on a precise negative income tax mechanism nor on the administrative details. In particular, the formulas for built-in work incentives and asset-holding restraints are still being debated, as is also the exact proportion of the poverty income gap, by family size and composition, that would set the standard for assistance. There is also no agreement on the direct tax burden that would be involved nor on the extent to which government transfer payments could safely be used, without serious repercussions for our social structure.

In a broader sense, the proposed approach to poverty also involves the philosophical issues of its impact on propensities to work, save, and invest of all the people, on the growth and stability of the economy, and on the extent and nature of income redistribution.

The total eradication of poverty and deprivation in our midst is, of course, one of the ultimate goals of our society. But there may be several paths leading to it. As suggested by the Council of Economic Advisers, the negative income tax approach may be one, and broadening the scope of public assistance programs by widening coverage and raising benefit levels may be another. A third might be to combine these two approaches and shape them into a single, comprehensive tool to help the poor. As discussion and analysis continue, criteria for evaluating the feasibility of the negative income tax mechanism will undoubtedly be developed and the consequences of alternative plans spelled out in greater detail.

Historically, we have reached national goals by moving through successive stages of developmental growth and through the test of public debate until plans became publicly acceptable. It is through this continuing process--planning, evaluating, rejecting, selecting, accepting--inherent in our democratic growth patterns, that we can hope to conquer poverty.

As President Johnson said in his 1966 State of the Union message: "We will continue to meet the needs of our people by continuing to develop the Great Society."

REFERENCES

1. Economic Report of the President, together with the Annual Report of Economic Advisers, January 1966, p. 115.
2. Lampman, Robert J. "Negative Rates Income Taxation" and "Preliminary Report on a Plan for Negative Income Taxation," papers prepared for the Office of Economic Opportunity (unpublished), 1965. "The American System of Transfers: How Does it Benefit the Poor?" in Economic Progress and Social Welfare, ed. by Leonard Goodman (New York: Columbia University Press, in press). "Approaches to the Reduction of Poverty," The American Economic Review, May 1965 and reprinted in Poverty in America--A Book of Readings, ed. by Louis A. Ferman, Joyce L. Kornbluh, and Allen Haber, Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1965, pp. 415-421. "The Future of the Low-Income Problem," in the Economics of Poverty--An American Paradox, ed. by Burton A. Weisbrod, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965, pp. 57-63.
3. Friedman, Milton. Capitalism and Freedom, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1962, (Chapters XI and XII) pp. 177-195, reprinted

as "Alleviation of Poverty" and "Social Welfare Measures," in Weisbrod, op. cit. pp. 151-160.

4. Schwartz, Edward E. "A Way to End the Means Test," Journal of Social Work, (July 1964), pp. 3-12; reprinted in Poverty in America, op. cit. pp. 481-496; and in slightly revised form as "An End to the Means Test," in the Guaranteed Income: Next Step in Economic Evolution, ed. by Robert Theobald, Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1966, p. 115-135.
5. Theobald, Robert. Free Men and Free Markets, New York: Clarkson N. Potter, Inc. 1963; and "The Background to the Guaranteed-Income Concept" and "The Guaranteed Income Proposal as Set Out in Free Men and Free Markets," in The Guaranteed Income, op. cit. pp. 83-96; 227-233.
6. The standard is based on a Department of Agriculture minimum food budget and takes into account differences in family size and composition, and differences between urban and rural residence. Mollie Orshansky, "Counting the Poor: Another Look at the Poverty Profile," Social Security Bulletin, January 1965, pp. 3-26; reprinted in Poverty in America, op. cit., pp. 42-82. For a 4-person nonfarm family the standard is $3,130. See also Economic Report of the President, op. cit., pp. 111-112.
7. Strictly speaking, it depends on his marginal rate or the increment in income relative to the increment in the tax schedule.
8. Economic Report of the President, op. cit., p. 114.
9. Lampman is of the opinion that our present system of transfer payments tends to benefit the not-so-poor more than the very poor. "The American System of Transfers: How Does it Benefit the Poor?" op. cit.
10. The question may be raised to what extent the net-worth concept in this context differs from a means test. Schwartz would exempt all families from receiving benefits who had a net worth exceeding $13,000 of equity in their homes or $2,000 exclusive of sole equity.
11. See also Margaret S. Gordon, The Economics of Welfare Policies, New York: Columbia University Press, 1963, pp. 14-23.
12. Theobald does not give estimates of the economic cost involved. Since, however, his $3,200 family allowance suggested for a four-person family (in 1963 prices) is almost identical to the SSA poverty line for a family this size, it can be assumed that the gross cost of his plan would amount to $11.5 billion at a minimum. The net cost would depend on what social programs would be replaced by his plan.
13. Theobald's model is based on tax rates prior to 1964 amendments to Federal income tax legislation. Since then a floor of $300 plus $100 for each dependent was added to the 10 percent deduction. Currently, there is a personal exemption of $600 per person added to the deduction.
14. Address at Gettysburg College, Gettysburg, Pa., February 8, 1966.

NOTES

Income and Community Participation

The degree and way in which people in the lower economic groups are integrated into the total community are factors of considerable importance in much current social planning. Involvement of the poor in any action which originates in the community itself may be decisively affected by the extent to which they are already community participants.

The following special report prepared at the request of the Division of Research, Welfare Administration, analyzes the association between income level and extent of community participation.

In October, 1965, the National Opinion Research Center conducted a national study of adults for the Division of Dental Health, U.S. Public Health Service. In all, 1,520 adults were interviewed in a representative sample. Although the survey dealt with dental health, several questions on other topics were asked for analytical purposes. Some of these related to community participation and were of two kinds. One asked about general feelings of participation in community affairs, and was phrased as follows:

> "People have different ideas of just how they fit into community affairs. Would you say that you are:
>
> A. A person who leads in making community decisions
> B. A person who is active, but not a leader in making community decisions
> C. Just an ordinary citizen in the community
> D. Not a part of the community at all."

The data showed that 4 percent of the adults described themselves as leaders in community decisions, 19 percent as active but not leaders in their community, 71 percent as just ordinary citizens, and 5 percent as not part of the community at all. When the sample was broken into subgroups by different income levels, it was clear that the small numbers of self-described leaders were distributed throughout the income groups in no apparent pattern.

Income did make a difference in the respondents' tendency to describe themselves as "active but not a leader." Only 11 percent of the persons earning less than $3,000 per year said they were "active," while 30 percent of those making $10,000 or more per year said that they were. Conversely, people with the lowest incomes were more likely to describe themselves as "ordinary citizens" than people with the highest incomes. There was no real difference by income in respondents saying they were "not a part of the community." (That self-description was related to length of residence in the community.)

	Percent describing themselves as:				
Annual income	Leaders	Active but not leaders	Ordinary citizens	Not a part of the community	Total interviewed
Under $3,000	5	11	78	6	(297)
$3,000 - $4,999	2	17	75	6	(284)
$5,000 - $6,999	4	20	70	6	(307)
$7,000 - $9,999	3	18	73	5	(319)
$10,000 or more	7	30	60	4	(298)

In addition to this general question, respondents were asked about five kinds of specific action: whether they had ever (1) helped collect money for a charitable organization, (2) contributed time or money for a local civic group, candidate, or the like, (3) written a letter to a newspaper or political representative about a local issue or candidate, (4) made telephone calls to friends, especially for some local issue or candidate, (5) signed a petition about a local issue or candidate.

The proportions of positive answers increased with income:

These differences among income groups were displayed on each of the five indicators of participation. Although a wide gap in community activity separated the lowest and the highest income groups (the proportions in the top income categories were twice as large as the proportions in the bottom categories), differences were fairly gradual between most of the income steps. Three thousand dollars per year is often considered as the poverty income line, but, as indicated in the tables, even people below that line did not abruptly change in community behavior.

	Percent saying they had ever:					
Annual income	Collected money	Contributed time/money	Written letters	Made calls	Signed petitions	Total interviewed
Under $3,000	38	38	8	16	31	(297)
$3,000 - $4,999	46	43	13	15	34	(284)
$5,000 - $6,999	55	49	16	21	46	(307)
$7,000 - $9,999	61	51	22	29	53	(319)
$10,000 or more	76	66	30	38	67	(298)

What does such data bode for efforts to enlist the lower socioeconomic groups in action programs? Two observations can be made. First, there is some community participation on which to build: 16 percent of those in the survey below the poverty line considered themselves either as leaders or as active to some extent in their community. At least a third had signed petitions, given time or money, or collected money in community oriented activities.

Second, education can possibly be used as a lever to increase participation. Within the sample which was surveyed, education was, in general, associated with action when income level was kept constant. The following tables give a breakdown by education for the two lowest economic groups--those making less than three thousand dollars per year, and those making between three and five thousand dollars. Education seemed to have a more decisive effect on the higher of the two income groups, but even below the poverty line ($3,000), persons with high school education were more likely to be active in four of the five community areas than people with elementary school educations.

Five Kinds of Participation Among Two Low Income Groups (under $3,000 and $3,000 - $4,000) by Education.

	Percent who had:				
Education	Collected money	Contributed time/money	Written letters	Made calls	Signed petitions
Yearly income	-$3,000	-$3,000	-$3,000	-$3,000	-$3,000
Elementary	24	22	4	5	22
Some high school	42	32	2	12	34
Completed high school	41	35	9	9	21
Some college	*	*	*	*	*
Completed college	*	*	*	*	*
Graduate or Prof. ed.	*	*	*	*	*

	Percent who had:				
Education	Collected money	Contributed time/money	Written letters	Made calls	Signed petitions
Yearly income	$3-$4,999	$3-$4,999	$3-$4,999	$3-$4,999	$3-$4,999
Elementary	38	29	2	10	29
Some high school	38	37	9	6	22
Completed high school	51	45	15	21	37
Some college	65	46	23	27	46
Completed college	*	*	*	*	*
Graduate or Prof. ed.	*	*	*	*	*

*Cases too few to analyze.

In summary, the poor included in the study were found to be less active in the community than the more affluent. However, a fairly large group had had local experience, and saw themselves as leaders or at least actively engaged in community decisions. This information is pertinent to formulating programs for using or stimulating community participation by the poor.

ROBERT M. O'SHEA

Chief, Behavioral Studies Section, Disease Control Branch, Division of Dental Health, U.S. Public Health Service.

SHIRLENE B. GRAY

Social Science Analyst, Behavioral Studies Section, Disease Control Branch, Division of Dental Health, U.S. Public Health Service.

Differences in Marital Status, White and Nonwhite

Among ever-married persons 25 years old and over, about 14 percent of all whites and 23 percent of all nonwhites had been married more than once. The proportion of all persons 25 years old and over in 1960 who were separated or divorced was about three times as great for nonwhites as for whites.

For each age group shown in the table, the proportion married more than once and the proportion separated or divorced was substantially higher for nonwhites than for whites.

Also, as would be expected, the ratio of persons married more than once increased with age. For example, at ages 25-34, 7 percent of white males and 10 percent of nonwhite males had been married more than once. By age 65, these proportions were 20 and 39, respectively.

These conclusions were derived from data presented in a recently released Census report on the marital status of the U.S. population in 1960. The report contains detailed data on marital status by occupation, income, education, age differences between married couples, and racial characteristics of married persons. Copies of the report cited in the footnote to the table may be obtained from the U.S. Government Printing Office for $1.50.

Selected data on marital status for persons 25 years old and over, United States, 1960

Age	Percent of all ever-married persons married more than once				Percent of all persons separated or divorced			
	White		Nonwhite		White		Nonwhite	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total, 25 years old and over	13.8	14.3	23.2	22.7	3.6	4.6	9.9	14.3
25-34 years	7.2	9.9	9.5	12.4	3.0	4.2	8.7	16.6
35-44 years	11.9	14.4	18.8	21.4	3.5	5.1	11.3	17.9
45-54 years	15.3	16.5	26.8	27.1	4.1	5.7	11.5	15.1
55-64 years	18.0	16.7	32.6	30.1	4.4	5.0	10.0	10.5
65 and over	19.8	15.2	39.1	31.2	3.5	2.8	6.9	5.2

U.S. Bureau of the Census. U.S. Census of Population: 1960. Subject Reports. Marital Status. Final Report PC(2) 4E. 1966.

SPANISH-AMERICANS OF THE SOUTHWEST

Life Style Patterns and Their Implications

Robert G. Hayden*

Spanish-Americans are a significant group in the Southwest, representing 12 percent of the population of the five States of California, Colorado, Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas. An earlier article in Welfare in Review by Raymond F. Clapp presents an analysis of the most important demographic facts concerning the relative status of the Spanish-speaking peoples of the Southwest region. Both his earlier presentation and this article are broadly illustrative of a full-length study now underway by the Division of Research of the Welfare Administration. The larger study deals with economic and social characteristics of Spanish-Americans and with pertinent cultural and social-psychological processes relevant to problems affecting the social and economic welfare of this ethnic group.

Fortunately, the number of published and unpublished sources of information about Spanish-American life are extensive; well over 500 references exist. Further, social scientists in describing and analyzing Spanish-American life styles have demonstrated a high level of agreement. It indicates that a solid base exists for the information included in this article.

A more comprehensive treatment of Spanish-American problems and the importance of relations between "Anglos"** and Spanish-Americans will be included in the full-length study. In this article it was possible to deal only with selected areas.

Some Basic Considerations

By reasons of their history and the opportunity structure of their present environment Spanish-Americans in the Southwest are a poor, proud, stable and cohesive group, with a value orientation strongly emphasizing interpersonal relations rather than ideas, abstractions or material possessions. They place a high value on their heritage, which is expressed in terms of pride in and loyalty to la raza.[I] Translated literally as "the race," la raza is a term encompassing Spanish-speaking peoples. Adherence to la raza is strongly expressed through loyalty to the Spanish language and to the highly cohesive, extended family unit. The above statements and those which follow apply with particular force to the poorest and least educated Spanish-Americans, who are the primary concern of this article.

Indeed, Spanish-Americans are inclined to regard with scorn those of their brethren who have adopted the demeanor and habits suggestive of Anglo standards.[11, 26] These negative feelings are intensified by evidence of material success among "pochos" (apparently an allusion to those who have become "bleached"

*Division of Research, Welfare Administration.
For references, see end of article.

**A designation commonly used in the Southwest to identify the white non-Spanish population. Broadly speaking, "Anglos" represent American middleclass norms in that region.*

The author is grateful to Dr. A. Bruce Gaarder, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, for his critical review of an earlier draft of this article.

and who now only faintly reflect the traditional values of la raza).

For a chronically poor people who for many centuries were exploited by a miniscule and privileged minority, it is not surprising to find that any display of material success, which seems to differentiate any one individual or family from its immediate reference group, is normally regarded as unseemly. Success appears to be suggestive of craft and dishonor, regardless of whether those achieving it are outwardly "pocho" or true children of la raza.

Despite prolonged contact with Anglo norms, Spanish-American values have been influenced only to a slight degree by the Anglo social environment--although we do not imply that such influence never occurs or that it cannot. However, all indications are that it is weak since very few Spanish-Americans adopt the Anglo's competitive, materialistic orientation that could be of assistance to them in rising above their present underprivileged position.

Furthermore, Spanish-Americans in business or the professions also tend to be automatically suspect in the eyes of their compatriots because they do not perform "honest labor" which, according to Spanish-Americans, is work commonly requiring physical strength, tenacity, and dexterity. A traditional example of this is agricultural labor.

Their very strong emphasis on the social and interpersonal traditions of la raza, often at the expense of a higher standard of living in the material sense, does not mean that money as a means to better living is of no interest to Spanish-Americans. Indeed a great deal of the migration from Mexico to this country can be attributed to the prevalence of relatively higher wages in the United States, even though in terms of the American wage structure Spanish-Americans are very close to the bottom. Nevertheless to the immigrant the country has appeared to offer greater assurance that the basic needs of one's family, whether accompanying the household head or remaining in Mexico, could be met more satisfactorily. As is suggested later, and in somewhat greater detail, the question of positive and negative motivations concerning the acquisition of money or material goods after basic needs are met remains a poorly understood and largely unexamined empirical problem in experimental psychology. Furthermore, what is also in doubt is the influence on motives of such social factors as the Anglo's much higher standard of living.

Clearly, new information leading to a better understanding of acquisitive tendencies and the social constraints upon them could have very important practical applications in social welfare programming and planning by the Southwestern States.

The same emphasis on non-materialist and non-ideational values spills over into attitudes toward education, which is to say Anglo-run educational systems. Public schools tend to reinforce this attitude when they make a strong point of defining the value of education primarily as a means to material success. Children could be doing "honest work" instead of receiving schooling, suspect from both utilitarian and moral standpoints. This applies with particular emphasis to those beyond the elementary level. An additional factor further undermining potentially positive attitudes toward schooling on the part of pupils and their families is the fact that school policies and procedures display a strong tendency to denigrate the Spanish language, heritage, and values.[11]

Article's Primary Orientation

It is essential for Spanish-Americans in the Southwest to have greater equality of opportunity without being forced to abandon large areas of their cultural tradition. The basic viewpoint presented in this article is that more complete integration of Spanish-Americans into the opportunity structure of American life is desirable but that complete assimilation at the expense of ethnic identity is both impractical and undesirable. In our pluralistic society, it should never be required that equality of opportunity and subcultural differences be mutually exclusive.

If more social welfare services were extended to Spanish-Americans than is presently the case, many new kinds of opportunities would probably become available to them. In order to increase the effective delivery of those services, it is essential that welfare program planners and field workers become intimately acquainted with the traditions and values of this group and the reactions these traditions and values evoke from Anglo society.

More specifically, in order that social welfare programs and policies may produce more positive consequences among poor Spanish-Americans, those formulating and implementing them must (1) be more responsive to pride in la raza, (2) understand that their influence can be exerted most effectively through rather than apart from the highly cohesive and extended family system and (3) stimulate maximum participation in the opportunities of American life by encouraging biculturalism among Spanish-Americans. In this way the least amount of undesirable social disruption would occur. The most important positive consequences should be an increase in median income (40 percent of employed males earn less than $3,000 annually); the matching of family size to its resources; a great increase in all health and welfare services; increased enrollment in and less absenteeism from both grade school and high school (proportionately there are only one-fourth to one-half as many Spanish-American high school graduates as Anglos). The most important aim in education would be markedly to improve Spanish and English language skills at all age levels.

Clearly not all of these goals can be achieved by the application of existing resources; additional funds and personnel are required. However, program planners will have to be clear about the goals and the means of achieving them before knowing what kinds of additional resources are most essential.

We are reminded that there exist excellent historical and contemporary reasons why members of the Spanish-American community are inclined to be distrustful of those representing the dominant Anglo institutions in the Southwest and why they are highly sensitive to both real and imagined insults emanating from members of these institutions. Obviously, sensitivity and distrust will impede efforts to enhance social and economic growth of Spanish-Americans in these five States. The whole problem is complicated by the fact that the Spanish-Americans are constantly reminded that advancement is incumbent upon adopting Anglo ways. They are, however, offered scant evidence that the discarding of valued and familiar ways will really promote their acceptance as equals or that it will actually lead to an improved condition of la raza.[38, 43]

Core Values, Aspirations, and Social Mobility

An important corollary of the view that person-oriented facets of behavior are of greatest importance to Spanish-Americans is their attempt to avoid or keep secret any situation which is likely to arouse envy of relations, friends, classmates, or co-workers. Visible signs of newly acquired wealth would tend to give rise to such situations. Unpleasant social relations characterized not only by envy, but also by dislike, hostility, and rejection are likely to be the consequence of new wealth. Naturally, then, the likelihood of an improved economic position can be a very potent threat to the individual. Therefore, aspirations to achieve the Anglo's higher economic standard are likely to become strong only if everyone in la raza or the neighborhood--or at the very least everyone in the extended family--will benefit.

In support of such reasoning it should be pointed out that Spanish-Americans who have already achieved middle-class status among their own people are much more favorably inclined to adopt some aspects of Anglo mores, presumably because they value their status position and see Anglo ways as advantageous in maintaining or advancing it further. They are also more acceptable to Anglos and thus have access to a more rewarding opportunity structure. In other words the

achievement of middle-class status, even if only within the Spanish-American social structure, will, for reasons indicated previously, produce alienation from some Latin core values as well as a shift in the value system in the direction of Anglo norms, which are predominantly middle class.

For the most part the bulk of Anglos in the region have apparently never really understood la raza. They have not been sufficiently sensitive to Latin pride and social etiquette to avoid infringing on them inadvertently in their everyday relations with their Spanish-American employees, students, clients, acquaintances, and friends. Their expressed views tend to reflect both the "melting pot" philosophy prevalent at the turn of the century, as well as the inclination to believe that Anglos retain some inevitable superiority over Spanish-Americans, even when the latter become Anglicized. Despite the fact that Anglos often do permit themselves to be charmed by the "quaintness" of some Spanish-American customs, only rarely do they accord full status to Latin traditions as the expression of a legitimate philosophy of life.

For instance, in many Southwest schools the use of Spanish is forbidden in class and on the playground; often there have even been attempts to devalue it by ridicule and other means. It would be unnatural if such negation of Spanish did not create resentment and defensive reinforcement of loyalty to la raza. The aim of Anglo school authorities is to make Spanish-American students proficient in English. However, instead of this desired result the unintended consequences are likely to be alienation of students from the Anglo world and its language,[11, 21, 28] early school leaving, reduced respect for the process of education, rebelliousness and delinquency, and a low level of aspiration. It would be surprising if the essence of these unfavorable attitudes were not passed on from one generation of Spanish-Americans to the next. Experiences in the school environment tend to confirm and reinforce the view among Spanish-Americans that the Anglo world and its ways are unfriendly toward them and therefore best avoided when possible.[45] Such a situation does not augur well for increased independence among Spanish-Americans and the raising of their sights for social and economic achievement. Instead, it seems likely that the prevailing educational climate will only serve to perpetuate marginal incomes and continuing dependency on various public agencies.

Schooling is potentially the single most powerful and durable life-event for introducing Spanish-Americans to Anglo ways. As Jane and Chester Christian point out, rarely will schooling leave favorable impressions unless it incorporates respect for the student, his family, and his people. "The Spanish-speaking child's first contact with Anglo culture is . . . an educational system in which almost all classes are taught in English by teachers who do not understand" or who are not permitted to use Spanish. "He is subject to pressures . . . to keep him from using Spanish. As a result he may drop out of school, and the 1960 rate of 'functional illiteracy' (four years or less of schooling) was higher for the Spanish speaking in the Southwest than for any other . . . group except for Indians in New Mexico and Arizona, most of whom are on reservations."[11]

Unquestionably, Spanish-Americans need to and can be moved in the direction of greatly increased literacy in English but it is doubtful that such change can be very rapid or that it can assume meaningful proportions without a thoroughgoing reappraisal of educational philosophy and methods, for both children and adults, at all levels of the public school systems of the five Southwestern States.

The Spanish-American heritage imposes unique conditions on social welfare program planning and development which, if not given thoughtful attention, makes such work as is done much less effective than it could be. Social welfare planners must give more consideration to the following important facts: (1) There exist and will continue to exist geographic and cultural contiguities between Spanish-Americans and Mexicans. (2) Large parts of the land area now constituting the States under study were settled by men of Spanish

heritage over two centuries before annexation by the United States.

The contemporary consequences of Mexico's geographic proximity and the centuries-old Spanish traditions in the Southwest have been documented repeatedly by students of that region. In 1934 Emory Bogardus was already able to discuss Spanish-American life in detail, citing over 250 references. New studies have been steadily accruing since that time. Therefore those seeking a better understanding of Spanish-American life styles have had available to them ample information resources. Indeed, the problem is one of adequate evaluative selection from the great number of extant sources. And much of the reliable information available requires appropriate translation into action terms applicable to existing and developing social welfare programs and plans.

Sanctioning and Encouraging Biculturism

Taking the long view, that is at least one generation ahead, is it not sensible for educational and welfare programs in the Southwest to give positive encouragement to biculturism and particularly to bilingualism? Would not Spanish-Americans, finding that la raza is accepted and that study of its history and language are esteemed, take an increasing interest in schooling? And might not Anglo ways then be regarded with greater favor? Would not encouraging a high level of literacy in Spanish also encourage the achievement of like excellence in English? In these ways some of the basic prerequisites for Spanish-Americans to become integral, participating members in American society could be met, with one major consequence being greater independence of more families, for longer periods, from privations of a social and economic nature.

But what of the current problems--those which have to be faced now and in the immediate future? Solutions to today's crises and stresses should not wait for another 20 years while productive biculturism is nurtured. By recognizing the advantages to be gained by knowledge and visible respect for la raza, today's problems could be solved more rapidly.

The most obvious prerequisites would appear to be the following: First, many more teachers and welfare workers fluent in the Spanish language, particularly as spoken in the Southwest, must be put into service. This may provide an excellent opportunity for the utilization of indigenous workers and teacher's aides. Second, a willingness of Anglos to show respect for and work within the local Spanish-American traditions is required. Third, it should be recognized that the cohesiveness of the large,* extended Spanish-American family in the Southwest makes imperative a radical change in the definition of the family unit by welfare agencies. The extended family must be considered the smallest common denominator. It or preferably a superordinate social unit must be the basic unit in social welfare programs. Fourth, experimental field research needs to be performed on "motivational pump priming" to determine the level of money payments which will be required to act as an incentive to heightening the Spanish-American's motivation for monetary gain to a point at which it will approximate the strength of the Anglo drive.

Put another way, the question is how much seed money would be needed to let low-income Spanish-Americans glimpse a way of life they would be willing to make prodigious efforts and sacrifices to achieve. The assumption is that the strength of such a drive is a function of the level and duration of real consummatory experience. It is of special importance to provide such experience for this group, which unlike other equally impoverished groups subscribes to a value system having little resemblance to an extension of American middle-class norms.

For historical and contemporary reasons the "melting pot" philosophy adopted to a large extent by other immigrants to this country has little applicability to

*"*The usual Spanish-speaking family is huge by U.S. standards. It not only includes mother, father, and commonly from five to fifteen children, but often includes brothers and sisters of the parents, their own parents, and perhaps even their grandchildren.*"[10]

Spanish-Americans. Most of these ethnic groups, unfamiliar with the English language, arrived in America when life based on Anglo-Saxon mores was already in full swing. All of them for a variety of reasons sharply curtailed their cultural ties with the country of origin soon after the major flow of immigration from their homeland ebbed, and thus faced weaker constraints insofar as acculturation was concerned. Their heritage, relations, and friends were not just "across the border." In addition to the proximity of Mexico, which reinforces old cultural habits, another barrier to acculturation is that the requirements for entering the opportunity structure have today become more demanding as a result of technological innovations and higher educational norms. And as time passes the growth of the latter barrier accelerates at an even more rapid pace.

The Spanish-American problem, therefore, is one of the here and now and of the future. It does not lend itself to action decisions in terms of different events and different people of a now almost unrelated era. The past is not always a useful teacher.

Details of the Present Situation

It is a well-documented fact that Spanish-Americans in the Southwest are economically and educationally deprived.[III] Suffice it to say that for Spanish-Americans in the Southwest levels of education, income and employment and quality of housing[47, 49] differ only slightly from those of nonwhites in that area.[12, 31]

Although Spanish-Americans have been influenced by the technological and cultural contextual variables peculiar to the United States,[11, 26] most of them retain the core values of Mexican folk culture and reject the basic aspects of the Anglo value system. This statement is particularly applicable to the poorest of this group with whom this article is primarily concerned. Only a very small proportion could be described as being socially marginal as a function of value conflicts between the two cultures. Even fewer can be said to have become acculturated to and integrated with an English-speaking world.

From the above one might draw the erroneous conclusion that Spanish-Americans of Mexican descent represent a completely insulated cultural group whose members are Americans only because territory was acquired in the war with Mexico. Nothing could be more inaccurate. Members of this group, regardless of degree of acculturation, appear to be very much aware that they are citizens of the United States, although they often feel--and with good reason--that some rights of full citizenship are denied them. Nevertheless, Spanish-Americans are an extremely patriotic group, and they have demonstrated their valor repeatedly, during World War II and the Korean conflict.

Members of la raza can see no reason why the maintenance of their time-honored customs should impede their right to full participation in American life on an equal footing with Anglos. They regard "respect of person" and the opportunities characteristic of first class citizenship in this country as their just due, and not as a favor to be bestowed. But continued discrimination[IV] has encouraged a certain fatalism about their position in Southwestern society, to the point of inducing in them some acceptance of Anglo beliefs about the inferiority of Latins. This phenomenon is well known from other situations in which an arbitrary dominant-subordinate relationship exists between groups. Most are reluctant to leave the Southwest for material gain because of powerful family and community ties and the lack of assurance that bias will be less severe elsewhere.

Despite a long history of discriminatory practices, Spanish-Americans are markedly uninvolved in any civil rights movement.[11] There appear to be a number of reasons for this: pride, individualism, and lack of organizing experience for collective action are among the most important. Picketing, sit-ins, and other common weapons of Negro civil rights activities are regarded by Spanish-Americans as injurious to dignity. In short, the cure may seem worse than the

disease.* In addition, "self-help" motivations in this area are also weakened by the common belief that God will see justice triumph. Should it not occur in their lifetime, God must be angry--and for good reason. At this point, the "bad Mexican"[26] is often brought into the picture as having dishonored la raza and thus incurred the wrath of the celestial powers.

Role Differentiation

The family is under the firm authority of the father, while the mother assumes the traditional subservient and severely proscribed role of homemaker, the model of purity, bearer and trainer of children. This is a reflection of "hombria" or "machismo," i.e., supreme male dominance, and male individualism, assertiveness, and extreme pride--attributes which strongly influence nearly all phases of Spanish-American life.

Male sexual prowess is an important attribute of machismo. It is understood that husbands to maintain a high level of machismo will likely carry on dalliance after marriage as before. This does not mean, however, a dimunition in the husband's felt responsibility to his family or a loosening of his firm ties to it.[26]

Similarly, large families are looked upon as evidence of adequate machismo. For that reason, among others, family size usually far exceeds family resources.[44] Although wives seem often to express a desire for fewer childbirths, those who resort to contraceptives or whose child-bearing capacity is impaired, are considered to be interfering with the cult of machismo and are therefore likely to incur their husbands' "justifiable" ire. Physical punishment of a wife by her husband is accepted as customary; her use of contraceptive devices would probably be regarded as ample justification for punitiveness. It will become apparent later in discussing the nature of Spanish-American folk religion that the custom of having very large numbers of children, this in spite of the family's exceedingly limited resources, owes much more to the cult of machismo than to religious constraints on family planning.

Because of folk customs and extremely low levels of income, expectations that family size and income can be coordinated are quite unrealistic, since basically such coordination would mean that poor families would have to plan for no children at all. Clearly, then, realistic psychological incentives for matching family size to resources are likely to develop only when income levels are raised to a point which makes such matching meaningful. Determination of the required income level is a question for empirical behavioral science research. This is a difficult and sensitive problem area on which a very great deal of research still needs to be done, if effective ways are to be found for removing one major obstacle to the potential for upward social mobility among poor Spanish-Americans.

Individualism, Social Constraints, and Ambition

The extreme individualism of Spanish-Americans is also reflected in their traditional attitudes toward public authorities, who are assumed to have little, if any, positive interest in the affairs and well-being of citizens. They hold the belief that ulterior motivations tend to prompt what little interest is shown. In addition, human beings are viewed as continually subject to the danger of overpowering temptations which can be checked only through external controls and threats of punishment. The indispensability attributed to the chaperone system for women is an excellent example. Males need not be chaperoned because of their inherent role as supreme individualists. This is part of the cult of machismo.

Jane and Chester Christian[11] write that the cultural traditions of Spanish-Americans in the Southwest provide usually well-defined and often absolute limits for social behavior. "When limits of behavior are absolute, they are well . . . defined and there is no need to preoccupy

*The recent grape pickers' strike in California may indicate that the idea of collective action is gradually becoming more acceptable.

oneself with them . . . usually one need only follow the prescribed form. However, when as in Anglo society, such limits are relative and variable . . . it is necessary to be an 'expert' in the culture to know what they are . . ." and ". . . constant application is necessary to learn how to act. The Spanish-speaking person of the Southwest is not culturally prepared for this learning process. He usually assumes the barriers are final and absolute, and his behavior is thereby more restricted than that of the Anglo."

This ubiquitous aspect of the culture is of extreme importance in examining the problems engendered by social and economic deprivation among Spanish-Americans. The Christians explain that individual status and role referable to the wealth-poverty dichotomy is quite permanently established in the eyes of most Spanish-Americans. Consequently, ". . . the poor do not waste their energies trying to make more money to rise in the social system. Therefore insofar as they have any energies left after the struggle to maintain life, they put them wholeheartedly into the creation of a 'good life' which is not dependent on economic standards. . . . There is 'serenidad' (and fatalism) because people are not generally engaged in a race with their neighbors to climb the social ladder." Work is seen as a means of providing the basic necessities of life, not as an end in itself. And because one's position in life is perceived as relatively fixed, work is not regarded as a means to alter one's personal or social status.

Family origins are still the primary determinant of status among Spanish-Americans in the Southwest. As the Christians[11] point out, "In many cases virtually all one's friends are relatives." This aspect of intrafamilial relations is of great importance, particularly for Spanish-Americans in the very low income brackets.

It means that even if an individual were convinced that increased earning power would permit him to rise above his station or to satisfy some urge or want without social opprobrium, there would nevertheless be little of the additional money left over after the customary distribution is made among brothers, sisters, parents, grandparents, children, and others.* The Christians judge that Spanish-American families "would have to earn double or more the income of an Anglo family to maintain an equivalent standard of living . . ." Furthermore, the employment of the household head's wife, while not unknown, is strongly frowned on and is obviously impractical considering the large family size and the high frequency of births. The constraints on accepting employment are then so great that wives as a group have little effect in advancing the economic status of the family.

The substantial differences between Spanish-Americans and Anglos in their outlook on life has been amply illustrated. A majority of Anglos tend to ignore, if not actually oppose, Spanish-American mores. The Christians[11] make the observation that ". . . Anglo teachers have known nothing of the language and less of the culture; they have assumed that both are weeds to be uprooted so that English and 'our way of life' can flourish." And they comment, "knowing nothing of the richness of the cultural heritage of the Spanish speaking, nor of Anglo culture's inadequacy in providing the satisfaction which Hispanic culture provides, they have been perplexed at the stubborn refusal of the Spanish-speaking to 'give up and face reality.' "

If Anglo organizations are earnestly desirous of convincing Spanish-Americans that it may be advantageous, desirable, and even necessary to adopt some facets of Anglo culture, they at the same time must make the effort to understand Latin habits much more thoroughly. Entry into and influence with the community is best achieved through opinion leaders and other indigenous individuals who have extensive contacts with Spanish-Americans. The folk-curers or "curanderos," where available, might be considered a natural group for such a purpose. However, individuals regarded by the Spanish-American com-

*When the tradition for mutual aid is so strong, public assistance payments, as might be expected, tend to melt away in much the same manner.

munity as "inglesado," "agringado," or "pocho"--terms reserved for those with weak ties and dubious loyalty to la raza--would be unsuitable since they would command little respect and would be unconvincing. Unfortunately those so labeled--e.g., physicians, lawyers, successful merchants--are most likely to be considered community leaders by the Anglos.[25, 26] There seem then to be excellent reasons for employing the indigenous poor as welfare aides and as neighborhood community leaders to implement social welfare program and planning objectives.

Importance of Religious and Related Beliefs

Religious folk beliefs rather than formal observances or formal adherence to Roman Catholicism characterize this group, which, as we have seen, lives by well-defined mores, and clear-cut sex and age-based role prescriptions within the family structure, the neighborhood, and within la raza. Although Spanish-Americans often do not follow the prescribed Roman Catholic ritual and despite the fact that men attend church but rarely, they regard themselves as good Catholics, believing that it is sufficient for the women and children of the family to go to church with some degree of regularity. Their faith is strong and enters daily life in many ways, from the invariable naming of children after saints, to supplicating saints at family altars. They also seek direct intercession with God through curanderos, who are presumed to be more efficacious than either priests or modern physicians. Priests are perceived primarily as being respected figureheads who are too far removed from the life of ordinary men to really understand the inner workings of either soul or body. On the other hand, physicians tend to be stereotyped by the poor Spanish-Americans as cold, unsympathetic, and greedy individuals regardless of their ethnic identity.[26, 43]

In general, religion and folk beliefs about illness, fate, luck, social position, and other important facets of every day life are closely intertwined.[V] Witches and spells cast by them often cause real concern. Defensive measures may consist of invoking counter-witchcraft or physically assaulting the presumed instigator of a spell.

The missionary work of certain Protestant sects has been much in evidence in areas of the Southwest heavily populated by Spanish-Americans. In the past missionaries have often incorporated some welfare services such as food, clothing, and assistance in finding employment in their efforts to induce more favorable attitudes toward Protestantism among Spanish-Americans. These services were usually furnished free or at a very nominal cost in order to assuage the recipients' pride. Nowadays, however, many such services are furnished without any sectarian overtones--by community centers, for example, which are broadly representative of the Protestant community.

However, many Spanish-Americans have at times often interpreted these services as constituting undignified bribes and have been inclined to respond with chagrin. An illuminating Spanish-American comment on the many sects of Protestantism is cited by William Madsen[26]: "The only real difference between them [Protestant sects] and us is that we honor the saints. God is God wherever He is but each Protestant church seems to think He is someone else." There is, on the whole, little interest among most Spanish-Americans to recast themselves in the image of an alien tradition whether religious beliefs or other values are involved.

Relations with Welfare Workers

It is not unlikely that welfare workers may resemble religious missionaries in the eyes of Spanish-Americans when they expound on what is right and proper. Because Spanish-Americans, like other people, strongly resent criticism of their way of life and regard as impolite questioning of private beliefs, welfare workers are likely to be regarded as graceless intruders if they show disregard for the amenities of Spanish-American customs.

It remains an empirical question to discover the extent to which the cultural discontinuities between welfare personnel and clients produce adverse effects in the delivery of welfare services. Separate field studies of welfare practice in the five states examined would appear to be in order, particularly because historically States differ somewhat with respect to time and conditions of Mexican and Anglo settlement and in the development of traditional viewpoints each group holds of the other. Such a study might well begin by discovering the extent to which Spanish-Americans are employed in welfare work.

It is not implied that welfare agencies are completely unaware of or are inactive in dealing with problems arising from cultural discontinuities and disparities. For example, the Colorado Department of Public Welfare, through its staff development program, provides an instructor to acquaint its staff with the history and customs of Spanish-American residents. A few such programs may exist in other states; however, there are no indications that they are about to appear in profusion.

We have commented on the possibility of Spanish-Americans drawing a resemblance between Anglo welfare workers and missionaries for Anglo Protestant sects. It is also instructive to consider that a similar parallel appears to exist in their perceptions of the Anglo welfare worker and the modern objective physician. In contrast, however, the folk-curer (curandero) tends to typify the Latin virtues of warmth and tact. Madsen,[26] who has written knowledgeably about health practices in the Rio Grande Valley, relates the following: "Both curer and physician are specialists in curing illness"--although, as he points out, their efficacy varies with the nature of the disease. However, Spanish-Americans tend to see the curer as patient-person oriented--as caring, whereas the physician's main concern is said to focus on being paid. The curandero takes the patient's self diagnosis seriously and explains the treatment he administers. He comforts those seeking help. The modern doctor seems to Spanish-Americans to be cold and disinterested. According to Madsen's observations, "Mexican-Americans are highly sensitive to the behavior of the physician, which seems to reflect an unwarranted superiority over other men. A physician may receive some respect for his formal training but the Mexican-American often feels that the doctor has not learned enough about the patient as a person."*

Thus the folk-curer's bedside manner is seen as superior in terms of respect and genuine sympathy for his supplicants. (Spanish-Americans, however, often visit both curandero and the modern physician for the same illness, but in view of the generally greater confidence in the curandero the latter frequently receives credit when the former's treatment is successful.) By virtue of his positive image the curandero is also seen as an effective practitioner. Indeed, students of folk medicine believe that he often effects genuine cures of psychosomatic conditions.

It is legitimate and important to ask: what proportion of welfare workers are seen by Spanish-Americans as respectful, sympathetic, and effective? This is a question for empirical research. Such evidence as is now available, however, suggests that Spanish-American perceptions of welfare personnel and of physicians are similar. This is a further indication that opportunities for positive social welfare intervention tend to be severely limited.

The scope for successful intervention can undoubtedly be broadened in a variety of ways, one of which would be to find means for enhancing the image of welfare workers among Spanish-Americans. This was successfully accomplished in the area of public health when Mexican physicians and nurses were made part of public health teams. Their background and extensive experience with impoverished patients in rural Mexico provided them with the necessary skills to create a positive impression on the Spanish-Americans they

**Interestingly, studies of the general U.S. population reveal that patients complain very frequently about physicians being interested in the "disease" at the expense of the "person". Rarely, however, do these same people have a sympathetic curandero to whom they can turn. But psychotherapists may often serve a similar purpose.*

treated. This again emphasizes the fact that effective social welfare activities must be based on a thorough understanding of the Spanish-American culture and language.

An experimental approach would be for welfare personnel to try to obtain the sanction and preferably the active help of respected and influential individuals in Spanish-American enclaves, such as curanderos.

* * *

Throughout this discussion the emphasis has been on ameliorating social conditions by working "with" and "through" the Spanish-American culture. There appear to be essentially two alternatives: (1) maintain the status quo, that is, continue along a course of less than adequate understanding and involvement; or (2) attempt to weaken the fabric of la raza in the belief that Spanish-Americans will then have no choice but to adopt Anglo ways. This alternative is likely to produce--for at least a generation--widespread episodes of social disorganization, characterized by an increase in family crises and a greater need for social services of all types.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

I. La raza: The references most pertinent in exploring and defining the meaning of la raza to Spanish-Americans are: 8, 11, 22, 24, 26, 44, 46, 50.

II. School policies: Although many other references could be given the following cover this topic quite adequately: 2, 8, 11, 21, 25, 36, 46.

III. Deprivation: Covered adequately in the following citations: 12, 14, 28, 31, 38, 47.

IV. Discrimination: See: 27, 28, 38, 44, 47, 50.

V. Religious and Related Beliefs: For detailed discussions see: 11, 21, 26, 48, 50.

1. Adams, Eleanor B., ed., Bishop Tamaron's Visitation of New Mexico, 1760. Publications in History, XV. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press. 1954.

2. Anderson, Theodore, "Foreign Languages and Intercultural Understanding." National Elementary Principal, 1957, 36, No. 5, 32-35.

3. Barker, George C. Pachuco, An American-Spanish Argot and its Social Functions in Tucson, Arizona. Tucson: University of Arizona Press. 1958.

4. Bentley, Harold W., A Dictionary of Spanish Terms in English, With Special Reference to the American Southwest. New York: Columbia University Press. 1932.

5. Bishop's Committee for the Spanish Speaking, "San Antonio Project." San Antonio, 1962. (Mimeographed.)

6. Bogardus, Emory S., The Mexican in the United States. Los Angeles: University of Southern California Press. 1934.

7. Bullock, Paul, "Employment Problems of the Mexican-American," Industrial Relations 1964, 3.

8. Burma, John H., Spanish-Speaking Groups in the United States. Durham: Duke University Press, 1954.

9. Campa, Arthur L., A Bibliography of Spanish Folklore in New Mexico. Bulletin, Language Series, II No. 3. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press. September, 1930.

10. Careers for Youth and the Mexican-American Community of Phoenix. American Seminar. Phoenix: Careers for Youth. 1963.

11. Christian, Jane MacNab and Chester C. Christian, "Spanish Language and Culture in the Southwest," in Language Loyalty in the United States III, Joshua A. Fishman, ed., Report to the U.S. Office of Education, SAE 8729; 1964.

12. Clapp, Raymond F., "Spanish-Americans of the Southwest, Welfare in Review IV, 1966.

13. Clark, Margaret, Health in the Mexican-American Culture. Berkeley: University of California Press. 1959.

14. El Paso Conference. A Study of Social and Economic Factors Relating to Spanish-Speaking People in the United States. El Paso, December, 1926. (Mimeographed.)

15. Espinosa, Aurelio M., The Spanish Language in New Mexico and Southern Colorado. Historical Society of New Mexico, XVI. Santa Fe: New Mexican Printing Co. 1911.

16. Gardner, John W., Excellence. New York: Harper Colophon Books. 1961.

17. Hackett, Charles W., Revolt of the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico and Otermin's Attempted Reconquest, 1680-1682. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press. 1942.

18. Hackett, Charles W., The Mexican Revolution and the United States, 1910-1926. Boston: World Peace Foundation. 1926.

19. Haugen, Einar, Bilingualism in the Americas: A Bibliography and Research Guide. University: University of Alabama. 1956.

20. Hayden, Robert G. and Joshua A. Fishman,

"The Impact of Exposure to Ethnic Mother Tongues on Foreign Language Teachers in American High Schools and Colleges." The Modern Language Journal, XLVIII, 1964.

21. Hayden, Robert G., "Some Community Dynamics of Language Maintenance" in Language Loyalty in the United States, II. Joshua A. Fishman, ed., Report to the U.S. Office of Education, SAE 8729; 1964.

22. Kibbe, Pauline R., Latin Americans in Texas. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press. 1946.

23. LaFarge, Oliver, Santa Fe, The Autobiography of a Southwestern Town. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press. 1959.

24. Landes, Ruth, Culture in American Education. New York: John Wiley & Sons. 1966.

25. Landman, Ruth H., Some Aspects of the Acculturation of Mexican Immigrants and their Descendants to American Culture. New Haven: Yale University Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. 1953.

26. Madsen, William, Mexican-Americans of South Texas. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston. 1964.

27. Marden, Charles F., Minorities in American Society. New York American Book Co. 1952.

28. McWilliams, Carey, North From Mexico, The Spanish-speaking People of the United States. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1949.

29. National Council for the Spanish Speaking. "Constitucion del Consejo Nacional Para los Hispanos." San Antonio, 1963. (Mimeographed.)

30. _____"1963 West Side Project." San Antonio, 1963. (Mimeographed.)

31. Pan American Union, Division of Education. Bibliography on Education and Economic and Social Development. Washington: Pan American Union. 1962.

32. Parker, William R., The National Interest and Foreign Languages. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1961.

33. Perrigo, Lynn, Texas and our Spanish Southwest. Dallas: B. Upshaw. 1960.

34. Picon-Salas, Mariano, A Cultural History of Spanish America, from Conquest to Independence. Translated by Irving A. Leonard. Berkeley: University of California Press. 1962.

35. Proceedings of the Eleventh Conference of the NCCSS. San Antonio: Bishop's Committee for the Spanish-Speaking. 1962.

36. Reynolds, Annie, The Education of Spanish-Speaking Children in Five Southwestern States. U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1933, No. 11. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1933.

37. Rosenquest, Carl, "An Intercultural Study of Juvenile Delinquency." Address presented at the Conference on Social and Economic Change in Contemporary Mexico. Monterrey, Nuevo Leon, August, 1961. (Mimeographed.)

38. Samora, Julian, "Summary and Conclusions," and "Recommendations," from unpublished MS on the Spanish-speaking of the United States, a pilot study for the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. San Antonio: Bishop's Committee for the Spanish-Speaking. 1962. (Mimeographed.)

39. _____. "Language Usage as a Possible Index of Acculturation," Sociology and Social Research, XL. 1956.

40. Sanchez, George I., "First Regional Conference on the Education of Spanish-Speaking People in the Southwest." Inter-American Education Occasional Papers, I. Austin: University of Texas Press. 1946.

41. Saunders. Lyle, A Guide to Materials Bearing on Cultural Relations in New Mexico. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press. 1944.

42. _____. Spanish-speaking Americans and Mexican Americans in the United States. A Selected Bibliography. New York: Bureau for Intercultural Education. 1944.

43. _____. Cultural Difference and Medical Care. New York: Russell Sage Foundation. 1954.

44. Simmons, Ozzie G. Anglo Americans and Mexican Americans in South Texas. Cambridge: Harvard University, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. 1952.

45. _____. "The Mutual Images and Expectations of Anglo Americans and Mexican Americans" in Ethnic Groups in American Life, Handlin Oscar, ed. DAEDALUS XC, 1961.

46. Southwest Council on the Education of Spanish-speaking People. Proceedings, Fifth Annual Conference, Los Angeles: George Pepperdine College. January, 1951.

47. Talbert, Robert H., Spanish-Name People in the Southwest and West. Forth Worth, Texas: Leo Potishman Foundation and Texas Christian University. 1955.

48. Vogt, Evon Z. and John M. Roberts, "A Study of Values: Five New Mexican Cultures." Scientific American CXCV, No. 1. (July, 1956), 25-31.

49. Washington Center for Metropolitan Studies. A Program to Establish a Social Framework for Physical Planning in Communities on the Mexican-American Border. Washington, 1962.

50. Woods, Sister Frances Jerome, Mexican Ethnic Leadership in San Antonio, Texas in Studies in Sociology XXXI. Washington, D.C.: Catholic University of America Press. 1949.

Publications of Interest*

WELFARE ADMINISTRATION

U.S. BUREAU OF FAMILY SERVICES. Program development for social services in public assistance. Washington, 1965. 94 pp.

Selected papers and reports presented at the meeting of State administrators and staff responsible for program development, July 6-10, 1964.

U.S. CHILDREN'S BUREAU. The child with central nervous system deficit; report of two symposiums. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1965. 149 pp. (Children's Bureau publication number 432-1965) 75 cents.

U.S. CHILDREN'S BUREAU. Juvenile court statistics, 1964. Washington, 1965. 20 pp. (Statistical series no. 83).

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

ALTMEYER, ARTHUR J. The formative years of social security. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1966. 314 pp. $6.50.

Chronicle of social security legislation and administration, 1934-1954.

BATES, V. EDWARD. Social work and head start: toward an operational definition. Child welfare, vol. 45, February 1966, pp. 74-80.

Guide for structuring a wide range of activities in a head start project.

BELL, WINIFRED. Aid to dependent children. New York: Columbia University Press, 1965. 248pp. $6.50.

Examines origins and early development of the "suitable home" policies, and later policies during the postwar years.

BIRD, CAROLINE. The invisible scar. New York: McKay, 1966. 364 pp. $5.95.

The Great Depression and what it has done to American life.

BRAXTON, DALE. Family casework and juvenile first offenders. Social casework, vol. 47, February 1966, pp. 87-92.

Report of the first year of a demonstration project of the Family Service of Metropolitan Detroit.

BRAZER, HARVEY E. Our hard-pressed State and and local governments. Challenge, vol. 14, January/February 1966, pp. 7-11.

Discusses "Heller plan" to channel percentage of federal revenue to the States.

DE FRANCIS, VINCENT. Laws for mandatory reporting of child abuse cases. State government, vol. 39, Winter 1966, pp. 8-13.

Central objective should be to protect children rather than punish parents.

FURIE, SIDNEY. Birth control and the lower class unmarried mother. Social work, vol. 11, January 1966, pp. 43-49.

Examines prevailing attitudes and existing program.

KAPLAN, SAUL. Report on services to the aged. Chicago: Jewish Federation of Metropolitan Chicago, 1966. 217 pp. Apply.

Has 14 p. supplement on governmental programs affecting aged individuals.

MANDELL, BETTY. The crime of poverty. Social work, vol. 11, January 1966, pp. 11-15.

Case of five men jailed for allegedly refusing to go on a work-relief project and the questions it raises for social welfare.

MANSER, GORDON. Standards for financial reporting by voluntary health and welfare units. State government, vol. 39, Winter 1966, pp. 42-46.

Purposes and major provisions of a set of comprehensive standards now in process of adoption and implementation by agencies across the country.

THEOBALD, ROBERT, ed. The guaranteed income: next step in economic evolution? Garden City, New York: Doubleday, 1966. 233 pp. $4.95.

Experts from several fields discuss the implications of the guaranteed income.

*U.S. Government publications for which prices are listed may be ordered from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 (25 percent discount on lots of 100 or more). Inquiries or orders for other publications should be directed to the publisher or issuing agency.

Program and Operating Statistics

Public Assistance in January 1966

In January 1966, the national total numbers of recipients and amounts of payments under the federally-aided public assistance programs[1] were substantially affected by the initiation in six States and Puerto Rico of medical assistance programs, as authorized by the Social Security Amendments of 1965. These amendments added Title XIX to the Social Security Act providing for grants to States, beginning January 1, 1966, for medical assistance programs. This new title has the objective of enabling States to consolidate, unify, and extend in a single, separate program, with increased Federal financial participation, their provisions for furnishing medical care to recipients under the other public assistance titles and to expand such provisions to cover certain medically needy individuals as well.

Operation of such medical assistance programs was begun in January in Hawaii, Illinois, Minnesota, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Puerto Rico. Medical assistance payments during January in these seven jurisdictions totaled $20.5 million. Six of the seven jurisdictions (excluding Puerto Rico) reported on both number of recipients and amount of assistance; they made payments of $20.3 million in behalf of 362,000 recipients. Most of these medical assistance recipients also received a money payment under one of the other federally-aided programs.

Decreases in January in national recipient counts for medical assistance for the aged, aid to the permanently and totally disabled, old-age assistance, and aid to the blind were attributable entirely or in substantial part to the transfer of medical-vendor-payment-only recipients to the new medical assistance programs. Such transfers more than accounted for the reductions in number of recipients from December to January of 30,500 (10.9 percent) in medical assistance for the aged and 1,200 in aid to the permanently and totally disabled. The January decreases of 16,800 in the number of old-age assistance recipients and 500 in the number receiving aid to the blind reflected to an appreciable

[1] *Data for specified types of assistance under State programs for aid to the aged, blind, or disabled or for such aid and medical assistance for the aged are classified with data for separate State programs for old-age assistance, aid to the blind, aid to the permanently and totally disabled, or medical assistance for the aged.*

extent the transfer of medical-vendor-payment-only recipients to medical assistance programs.

Total recipients of aid to families with dependent children numbered 40,900 more in January than in December. This increase resulted largely from a rise of 28,800 in the unemployed-parent segment of the program, which characteristically expands in the winter months. The January increase in total recipients of aid to families with dependent children would have been about 45 percent larger had not medical-vendor-payment-only recipients been transferred to medical assistance in the States initiating this program.

The transfer of large amounts of medical vendor payments to the new medical assistance program in January also had the effect of reducing total assistance payments and the average payment per recipient in each of the other federally-aided programs. In medical assistance for the aged total payments in behalf of recipients decreased $7.9 million or 14.9 percent from December to January and the average payment per recipient decreased $8.48.

Other amendments to the public assistance provisions of the Social Security Act also became effective January 1. Those with the largest potential effect on assistance payments were the liberalizations in the formulas governing the rate of Federal participation in the regular public assistance programs.

The increased Federal funds available under these amendments enable States to increase money payments to recipients without spending additional State funds. Because of the time required for States to adjust their standards of assistance and limitations on payments to recipients, the effect of changes in the Federal matching formulas is usually spread over a period of several months.

In January the average money payment per recipient increased in slightly more than half the States for old-age assistance, in three-fifths of the States for aid to the blind, and in two-thirds of the States for aid to the permanently and totally disabled and aid to families with dependent children. Nationally, the average money payment per recipient increased $1.12 in old-age assistance, $1.86 in aid to the blind, $1.49 in aid to the permanently and totally disabled, and 26 cents in aid to families with dependent children.

General assistance recipients increased 37,800 in January, reflecting usual seasonal influences; total payments also increased, but to a lesser degree.

Table 1. Number of recipients of public assistance in the United States, by month, January 1965-January 1966 1/

Table 1. Number of recipients of public assistance in the United States, by month, January 1965-January 1966 1/

[Except for general assistance, includes cases receiving only vendor payments for medical care]

Year and month	Old-age assistance 2/	Medical assistance for the aged 2/	Aid to the blind 2/	Aid to the permanently and totally disabled 2/	Aid to families with dependent children			Medical assistance 4/	General assistance 5/	
					Families	Total recipients 3/	Children		Cases	Recipients
	Number of recipients									
1965										
January...	2,154,586	227,606	96,155	534,602	1,046,971	4,371,936	3,274,859	---	352,000	808,000
February..	2,150,290	228,078	95,834	534,276	1,056,145	4,424,029	3,311,726	---	353,000	801,000
March.....	2,151,542	244,551	96,194	540,394	1,073,033	4,491,840	3,360,553	---	359,000	809,000
April.....	2,152,250	257,368	95,524	545,287	1,076,063	4,505,878	3,374,921	---	345,000	760,000
May.....	2,150,606	258,839	95,503	549,895	1,069,668	4,469,527	3,352,294	---	325,000	689,000
June.....	2,149,220	267,996	95,350	555,594	1,062,802	4,429,038	3,325,987	---	318,000	664,000
July.....	2,144,949	265,664	95,170	559,285	1,052,525	4,377,100	3,291,501	---	306,000	643,000
August....	2,144,534	266,274	95,135	563,111	1,053,894	4,388,155	3,296,511	---	315,000	665,000
September.	2,140,172	275,483	6/ 86,082	565,588	1,053,409	4,378,513	3,295,589	---	305,000	649,000
October...	2,126,058	271,359	6/ 85,964	567,148	1,052,100	4,369,875	3,293,039	---	298,000	631,000
November..	2,129,103	277,953	6/ 86,129	571,147	1,056,521	4,393,067	3,311,929	---	300,000	641,000
December..	2,127,179	279,345	6/ 86,079	575,245	1,069,316	4,456,995	3,358,112	---	310,000	677,000
1966										
January...	2,110,358	248,835	6/ 85,578	574,011	1,077,590	4,497,861	3,386,885	7/ 362,213	319,000	715,000
	Percentage change from previous month									
1965										
January...	-0.2	+1.0	-0.3	+1.3	+1.7	+1.9	+1.7	---	+1.8	+3.7
February..	-.2	+.2	-.3	-.1	+.9	+1.2	+1.1	---	+.1	-.9
March.....	+.1	+7.2	+.4	+1.1	+1.6	+1.5	+1.5	---	+1.9	+1.0
April.....	(8/)	+5.2	-.7	+.9	+.3	+.3	+.4	---	-3.8	-6.1
May.....	-.1	+.6	(9/)	+.8	-.6	-.8	-.7	---	-5.8	-9.3
June.....	-.1	+3.5	-.2	+1.0	-.6	-.9	-.8	---	-2.4	-3.6
July.....	-.2	-.9	-.2	+.7	-1.0	-1.2	-1.0	---	-3.6	-3.2
August....	(9/)	+.2	(9/)	+.7	+.1	+.3	+.2	---	+2.7	+3.4
September.	-.2	+3.5	(10/)	+.4	(9/)	-.2	(9/)	---	-3.1	-2.4
October...	-.7	-1.5	-.1	+.3	-.1	-.2	-.1	---	-2.2	-2.8
November..	+.1	+2.4	+.2	+.7	+.4	+.5	+.6	---	+.6	+1.6
December..	-.1	+.5	-.1	+.7	+1.2	+1.5	+1.4	---	+3.4	+5.7
1966										
January...	-.8	-10.9	-.6	-.2	+.8	+.9	+.9	---	+2.7	+5.6

1/ All data subject to revision. 2/ Represents data for recipients of the specified types of assistance under separate State programs and under State programs for aid to the aged, blind, or disabled or for such aid and medical assistance for the aged. 3/ Includes as recipients the children and 1 or both parents or 1 caretaker relative other than a parent in families in which the requirements of such adults were considered in determining the amount of assistance. 4/ Program initiated January 1966 under Public Law 89-97. 5/ Partly estimated. Excludes Idaho, Indiana, and Nebraska; data not available. 6/ Excludes State blind pension program in Pennsylvania administered under State law without Federal participation. 7/ Does not include data for Puerto Rico. 8/ Increase of less than 0.05 percent. 9/ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent. 10/ Not computed; base not comparable.

Table 2. Amount of public assistance payments in the United States, by month, January 1965-January 1966 1/

[Except for general assistance, includes vendor payments for medical care]

Year and month	Total 2/	Old-age assistance 3/	Medical assistance for the aged 3/	Aid to the blind 3/	Aid to the permanently and totally disabled 3/	Aid to families with dependent children	Medical assistance 4/	General assistance 5/
	Amount of assistance							
1965								
January.....	$442,208,000	$169,149,172	$43,848,997	$8,275,409	$42,486,266	$145,748,741	---	$23,219,000
February....	446,520,000	170,189,513	42,535,323	8,267,896	43,302,081	148,891,335	---	23,452,000
March.....	460,853,000	172,509,810	45,590,162	8,372,511	45,391,949	154,259,544	---	24,327,000
April.....	466,259,000	173,958,876	49,840,447	8,315,290	45,629,477	154,713,449	---	23,263,000
May.....	458,019,000	171,419,966	49,438,614	8,263,025	45,913,627	152,033,192	---	21,312,000
June.....	459,850,000	172,862,075	50,852,533	8,392,761	47,063,386	149,814,741	---	20,789,000
July.....	454,598,000	171,599,365	49,228,830	8,283,765	46,671,830	148,815,802	---	20,183,000
August.....	459,086,000	171,834,044	50,340,882	8,282,226	48,162,429	150,496,685	---	20,239,000
September...	463,457,000	170,395,643	51,970,270	6/ 7,752,563	47,886,157	154,976,542	---	20,755,000
October.....	457,428,000	168,348,580	50,000,447	6/ 7,783,847	49,013,402	152,707,158	---	19,979,000
November....	466,089,000	171,401,898	52,144,916	6/ 7,792,463	49,514,526	154,211,471	---	20,374,000
December....	470,392,000	169,894,893	53,000,303	6/ 8,018,131	50,201,794	158,356,820	---	21,397,000
1966								
January.....	474,364,000	165,456,529	45,100,657	6/ 7,876,899	48,393,773	157,283,614	$20,450,201	21,702,000
	Percentage change from previous month							
1965								
January.....	-0.6	-0.7	-1.1	(7/)	-0.1	+0.4	---	-2.2
February....	+1.0	+.6	-3.0	-0.1	+1.9	+2.2	---	+1.0
March.....	+3.2	+1.4	+7.2	+1.3	+4.8	+3.6	---	+3.7
April.....	+1.2	+.8	+9.3	-.7	+.5	+.3	---	-4.4
May.....	-1.8	-1.5	-.8	-.6	+.6	-1.7	---	-8.4
June.....	+.4	+.8	+2.9	+1.6	+2.5	-1.5	---	-2.5
July.....	-1.1	-.7	-3.2	-1.3	-.8	-.7	---	-2.9
August.....	+1.0	+.1	+2.3	(8/)	+3.2	+1.1	---	+.3
September...	+1.0	-.8	+3.2	(9/)	-.6	+3.0	---	+2.6
October.....	-1.3	-1.2	-3.8	+.4	+2.4	-1.5	---	-3.7
November....	+1.9	+1.8	+4.3	+.1	+1.0	+1.0	---	+2.0
December....	+1.1	-.9	+1.6	+2.9	+1.4	+2.7	---	+5.0
1966								
January.....	+.8	-2.6	-14.9	-1.8	-3.6	-.7	---	+1.4

1/ All data subject to revision. 2/ Total exceeds sum of columns because of inclusion of vendor payments for medical care from general assistance funds and from special medical funds; data for such expenditures partly estimated for some States. 3/ Represents data for payments to recipients of the specified type of assistance under separate State programs and under State programs for aid to the aged, blind, or disabled or for such aid and medical assistance for the aged. 4/ Program initiated January 1966 under Public Law 89-97. 5/ Partly estimated. Excludes Idaho, Indiana, and Nebraska; data not available. 6/ Excludes State blind pension program in Pennsylvania administered under State law without Federal participation. 7/ Increase of less than 0.05 percent. 8/ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent. 9/ Not computed; base not comparable.

Table 3. Old-age assistance: Recipients and payments to recipients, by State, January 1966 1/

[Includes vendor payments for medical care and cases receiving only such payments]

State	Number of recipients	Payments to recipients		Percentage change from--			
		Total amount	Average	December 1965 in--		January 1965 in--	
				Number	Amount	Number	Amount
Total 2/...	2,110,358	$165,456,529	$78.40	-0.8	-2.6	-2.1	-2.2
Alabama.....	111,725	8,049,326	72.05	+.1	+6.5	+.4	+5.0
Alaska 3/.....	1,382	4/ 128,493	92.98	+.5	+.8	+.6	+23.1
Arizona.....	13,345	835,796	62.63	-.6	-.5	+.8	+.1
Arkansas.....	60,107	3,869,226	64.37	(5/)	-.5	+2.1	+2.7
California.....	278,573	30,344,661	108.93	-.3	+2.0	+1.9	+1.5
Colorado 2/.....	42,651	4,102,135	96.18	-.3	+.5	-2.7	-1.4
Connecticut.....	6,028	482,260	80.00	+.1	-1.4	-15.6	-19.1
Delaware.....	1,483	105,653	71.24	+1.9	+12.5	+4.9	+16.7
Dist. of Col.....	2,315	196,384	84.83	(6/)	-4.1	-3.3	-.8
Florida 3/.....	74,574	4,867,058	65.26	(6/)	-1.3	+1.7	-1.1
Georgia.....	92,917	5,405,792	58.18	(6/)	-1.8	+1.0	+4.7
Guam 7/.....	177	7,745	43.76	---	---	---	---
Hawaii 3/.....	1,331	100,658	75.63	+.5	-27.5	+13.9	+8.2
Idaho.....	3,920	302,008	77.04	-1.0	-.9	-11.2	-8.1
Illinois 3/.....	44,616	2,506,770	56.19	-15.0	-52.3	-21.1	-52.6
Indiana.....	21,609	1,997,958	92.46	-1.0	-1.6	-5.3	+5.0
Iowa.....	26,373	2,501,589	94.85	(6/)	-2.8	-4.4	-1.3
Kansas 3/.....	20,235	1,868,974	92.36	-1.1	-3.3	-7.4	-8.7
Kentucky 3/.....	59,313	3,718,077	62.69	-.2	+1.4	+2.2	+7.2
Louisiana.....	130,945	11,039,722	84.31	+.1	+3.1	+.2	-.7
Maine 3/.....	10,748	931,183	86.64	-.4	+3.1	-2.4	+2.4
Maryland 3/.....	10,327	953,677	92.35	+.3	-1.0	+4.3	+31.3
Massachusetts....	50,581	4,704,830	93.02	-.5	-3.1	-5.3	+2.6
Michigan.....	41,622	3,828,590	91.98	-8.0	-9.7	-15.2	-14.2
Minnesota.....	32,652	1,757,948	53.84	+8.0	-37.8	+.6	-35.6
Mississippi.....	73,161	2,999,965	41.00	(6/)	+.1	+.2	+5.0
Missouri.....	99,535	7,396,186	74.31	-.3	+6.5	-2.6	+6.7
Montana.....	4,191	358,487	85.54	-.2	+2.4	-20.6	-5.7
Nebraska 3/.....	10,581	962,121	90.93	-1.9	-6.9	-15.2	-16.3
Nevada.....	2,337	186,297	79.72	-.2	-4.3	-11.3	-21.1
New Hampshire....	4,286	469,466	109.53	-.3	-.5	-2.7	+4.5
New Jersey.....	14,002	1,252,203	89.43	+.2	-.9	+1.1	+4.7
New Mexico 3/....	9,929	870,355	87.66	-.8	+10.6	-4.4	+4.9
New York 3/.....	56,737	5,535,212	97.56	-.7	+1.1	+.3	+5.3
North Carolina...	42,063	2,841,188	67.55	-.6	+5.8	-1.7	+10.2
North Dakota 3/..	4,985	324,250	65.05	+1.6	-34.4	-4.1	-30.1
Ohio.....	80,001	7,442,922	93.04	-1.0	+2.3	-3.4	+3.9
Oklahoma 3/.....	81,724	6,255,370	76.54	-.4	-20.8	-1.4	-21.6
Oregon.....	9,635	699,729	72.62	-.8	-.9	-6.8	-5.8
Pennsylvania.....	43,711	3,021,758	69.13	-2.8	-18.0	-5.6	-19.2
Puerto Rico 3/...	28,260	242,772	8.59	-1.1	-13.8	-8.4	-15.8
Rhode Island 3/..	5,484	537,202	97.96	-.4	-.5	-7.4	-4.2
South Carolina...	24,474	1,357,764	55.48	-.6	-1.0	-4.4	+.1
South Dakota.....	6,328	575,514	90.95	-1.4	-3.1	-11.4	-5.3
Tennessee.....	44,649	2,705,438	60.59	-.2	+1.2	-.5	+7.3
Texas.....	228,407	16,861,672	73.82	-.3	+7.4	-.7	+4.5
Utah.....	4,496	308,199	68.55	-1.5	-9.3	-7.4	-7.8
Vermont 3/.....	5,231	475,509	90.90	-.7	-1.4	-3.5	+2.4
Virgin Islands...	433	17,515	40.45	-1.6	-1.2	-4.0	-4.8
Virginia.....	12,896	892,009	69.17	-.9	-.7	-3.1	+5.0
Washington.....	30,295	2,304,412	76.07	-1.5	-8.5	-7.1	-7.7
West Virginia....	13,640	749,846	54.97	-1.3	-1.3	-3.6	+6.3
Wisconsin.....	26,971	2,995,433	111.06	-.8	-11.0	-5.0	-2.0
Wyoming.....	2,367	211,222	89.24	-.2	+3.3	-3.7	-.9

1/ All data subject to revision. 2/ Includes 3,768 recipients aged 60-64 in Colorado and payments of $326,372 to these recipients. Such payments were made without Federal participation. 3/ Represents aid to the aged, under program for aid to the aged, blind, or disabled, or for such aid and medical assistance for the aged. 4/ In addition, supplemental payments from general assistance funds were made to recipients. 5/ Increase of less than 0.05 percent. 6/ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent. 7/ Data for November; January data not received.

Table 4. Medical assistance for the aged: Recipients and payments for recipients, by State, January 1966 1/

State	Number of recipients 2/	Payments for recipients		Percentage change from--			
		Total amount	Average	December 1965 in--		January 1965 in--	
				Number	Amount	Number	Amount
Total.....	248,835	$45,100,657	$181.25	-10.9	-14.9	+9.3	+2.9
Alabama.....	243	81,092	333.71	+4.3	+11.5	-10.3	+6.1
Arkansas.....	3,027	194,736	64.33	-3.8	-4.4	+7.0	+18.8
California.....	37,879	11,129,220	293.81	-2.4	+3.9	+35.8	+31.2
Colorado.....	5,653	3/ 1,068,038	188.93	+7.1	+.1	+27.5	+32.0
Connecticut.....	7,764	3/ 1,424,605	183.49	+3.3	-2.4	+17.8	+7.6
Delaware.....	178	19,998	112.35	+21.9	+8.4	(4/)	(4/)
Dist. of Col....	788	328,735	417.18	+56.3	+174.1	-1.6	-18.4
Florida 5/.....	793	265,659	335.01	+37.0	+51.9	+31.7	+24.2
Guam 6/.....	23	2,475	(4/)	---	---	---	---
Idaho.....	2,694	393,652	146.12	-.7	-2.0	+20.1	+20.8
Indiana.....	1,083	183,330	169.28	+10.1	-7.8	(7/)	(7/)
Iowa.....	7,123	828,260	116.28	+53.2	+113.4	+32.5	+43.7
Kansas 5/.....	3,510	3/ 555,990	158.40	+1.6	+.6	+29.6	+41.2
Kentucky 5/.....	11,928	428,425	35.92	-4.9	+.2	+44.0	+66.3
Louisiana.....	528	102,296	193.74	+2.1	+15.5	+15.8	+12.4
Maine 5/.....	541	145,013	268.05	+9.7	+25.5	+44.7	+35.9
Maryland 5/ 8/..	12,575	506,438	40.27	+1.1	-5.8	+14.3	+32.7
Massachusetts...	32,111	3/ 5,575,007	173.62	+1.6	-.4	+10.3	+19.0
Michigan.....	7,710	3,047,199	395.23	+33.3	+34.1	+32.8	+44.8
Montana.....	1,847	315,072	170.59	+6.5	-2.9	(7/)	(7/)
Nebraska 5/.....	2,931	3/ 620,800	211.80	-.6	-5.8	(9/)	+679.4
Nevada.....	86	3/ 83,996	976.70	(4/)	(4/)	(7/)	(7/)
New Hampshire...	1,965	114,904	58.48	-6.6	-9.0	+10.5	+18.4
New Jersey.....	5,931	3/ 1,507,376	254.15	+1.1	+1.6	+12.0	+19.3
New Mexico 5/...	67	20,154	300.81	(4/)	(4/)	(7/)	(7/)
New York 5/.....	31,469	3/ 9,807,947	311.67	-17.7	-24.0	-11.5	-12.3
North Carolina..	3,188	310,010	97.24	+17.4	-8.0	+349.6	+44.8
Oregon.....	4,419	640,867	145.03	+5.6	+4.1	+10.9	+10.9
Rhode Island 5/.	11,348	1,218,554	107.38	+7.7	+93.0	(9/)	(9/)
South Carolina..	1,400	220,305	157.36	+5.7	-4.8	+30.2	+13.3
South Dakota....	1,411	131,608	93.27	+5.0	+4.7	+171.9	+394.8
Tennessee.....	11,693	397,279	33.98	+20.1	+30.0	+42.4	+52.0
Utah.....	2,326	268,750	115.54	-4.0	-3.9	+4.4	+7.3
Vermont 5/.....	166	31,580	190.24	+12.9	+16.1	+24.8	+15.6
Virgin Islands..	46	722	(4/)	-89.2	-83.5	-54.0	-81.2
Virginia.....	4,293	279,002	64.99	+8.3	+2.2	+67.0	+32.4
Washington.....	10,203	1,481,613	145.21	-6.6	-5.2	+9.0	+8.7
West Virginia...	11,439	414,556	36.24	+54.8	+166.0	+14.3	+42.8
Wisconsin.....	6,422	928,372	144.56	+6.4	+.8	+43.1	+21.0
Wyoming.....	34	27,022	(4/)	(4/)	(4/)	(4/)	(4/)

1/ All data subject to revision. 2/ Persons for whom vendor payments were made during the report month. 3/ Includes money payments not subject to Federal participation as follows: $28,074 in Colorado, $5 in Connecticut, $15,643 in Kansas, $94,223 in Massachusetts, $14,528 in Nebraska, $981 in Nevada, $8,190 in New Jersey and $49,751 in New York. 4/ Average payment not computed on base of fewer than 50 recipients; percentage change on fewer than 100 recipients. 5/ Represents medical assistance for the aged under program for aid to the aged, blind, or disabled or for such aid and medical assistance for the aged. 6/ Data for November; January data not received. 7/ No program in operation in January 1965. 8/ Estimated. 9/ Not shown; increase of 1,000 percent or more.

Table 5. Aid to the blind: Recipients and payments to recipients, by State, January 1966 1/

[Includes vendor payments for medical care and cases receiving only such payments]

State	Number of recipients	Payments to recipients		Percentage change from--			
		Total amount	Average	December 1965 in--		January 1965 in--	
				Number	Amount	Number	Amount
Total 2/3/.....	85,578	$7,876,899	$92.04	-0.6	-1.8	-11.0	-4.8
Ala.....	1,874	129,382	69.04	-.3	+.8	+2.5	+3.3
Alaska 4/.....	110	8,725	79.32	0	-.4	0	-3.3
Ariz.....	792	56,693	71.58	-1.0	-1.2	-3.8	-3.5
Ark.....	1,920	137,944	71.85	-.6	-1.8	-.8	+.3
Calif. 2/.....	12,544	1,838,142	146.54	+.1	+3.7	+1.0	+5.3
Colo.....	236	21,602	91.53	-.4	+1.9	-7.5	+2.1
Conn.....	306	34,280	112.03	-1.0	-.6	-2.5	-5.8
Del.....	325	26,967	82.98	-.3	+1.3	+8.7	+4.0
Dist. of Col.....	196	14,623	74.61	+.5	-.7	-3.0	-4.0
Fla. 4/.....	2,586	176,883	68.40	-.2	+1.1	+.1	-.3
Ga.....	3,188	196,383	61.60	-.2	-.2	-.5	+4.1
Guam 5/.....	6	180	(6/)	---	---	---	---
Hawaii 4/.....	68	6,446	94.79	(6/)	(6/)	(6/)	(6/)
Idaho.....	121	8,645	71.45	0	+3.5	-8.3	-12.6
Ill. 4/.....	2,170	152,028	70.06	-6.1	-32.5	-12.1	-35.3
Ind.....	1,724	169,106	98.09	+.3	+2.3	-3.3	+5.3
Iowa.....	1,093	112,098	102.56	-1.0	-2.1	-5.0	-2.6
Kans. 4/.....	479	51,901	108.35	-1.0	+.9	-7.0	-5.3
Ky. 4/.....	2,512	183,306	72.97	-.2	+3.5	+1.5	+6.3
La.....	2,662	213,491	80.20	-.8	-.7	-4.5	-5.1
Maine 4/.....	265	22,898	86.41	-.4	(7/)	-14.2	-10.6
Md. 4/.....	382	33,319	87.22	0	-1.0	+.3	+7.9
Mass.....	2,277	352,209	154.68	+.1	+6.8	-1.6	+9.7
Mich.....	1,636	164,218	100.38	0	+11.0	-2.8	+13.6
Minn.....	960	69,593	72.49	-9.7	-46.1	-8.4	-39.7
Miss.....	2,531	118,499	46.82	+.4	+.6	-4.9	-.8
Mo. 2/.....	4,299	343,920	80.00	-.4	-.4	-3.2	+3.2
Mont.....	225	15,982	71.03	+.4	-2.7	-9.6	-25.2
Nebr. 4/.....	535	56,552	105.70	-2.7	-8.3	-15.6	-18.2
Nev.....	162	17,424	107.56	+.6	+.1	+3.2	-2.0
N. H.....	244	27,276	111.79	-1.2	-.8	-7.9	-5.0
N. J.....	916	86,283	94.20	+.4	+1.3	-2.3	+5.9
N. Mex. 4/.....	351	36,581	104.22	+.3	+9.5	+2.0	+10.8
N. Y. 4/.....	3,105	357,514	115.14	-1.5	-5.7	-.6	+5.7
N. C.....	4,832	346,455	71.70	-.5	+2.2	-3.3	-.8
N. Dak. 4/.....	79	6,987	88.44	(6/)	(6/)	(6/)	(6/)
Ohio.....	3,132	276,896	88.41	-.5	-11.9	-4.1	+6.8
Okla. 4/.....	1,608	168,524	104.80	-.7	-16.1	-2.5	-16.4
Oreg.....	491	46,218	94.13	+1.0	+1.7	+10.3	+13.7
Pa. 3/.....	8,991	909,182	101.12	-.3	-2.4	-49.2	-32.3
P. R. 4/.....	1,310	11,316	8.64	-.6	-4.1	-6.0	-4.0
R. I. 4/.....	107	10,570	98.79	0	+2.4	+2.9	+7.7
S. C.....	1,889	117,872	62.40	+.4	-.3	+2.9	+3.7
S. Dak.....	111	7,980	71.89	0	-1.2	-5.1	-2.7
Tenn.....	2,049	120,379	58.75	(8/)	-2.9	-3.9	+2.2
Texas.....	4,478	318,931	71.22	-.3	+2.6	-5.8	-3.6
Utah.....	166	12,287	74.02	+1.8	+.6	-2.9	-5.7
Vt. 4/.....	125	9,183	73.46	0	+.7	+4.2	+1.6
V. I.....	10	368	(6/)	(6/)	(6/)	(6/)	(6/)
Va.....	1,142	84,465	73.96	-1.0	-3.7	+.4	+4.0
Wash.....	680	55,794	82.05	-2.2	-13.4	+2.6	-2.2
W. Va.....	757	43,485	57.44	-.8	-1.2	-4.5	+14.6
Wisc.....	767	82,611	107.71	+1.2	-.6	-4.0	+6.1
Wyo.....	54	6,303	116.72	(6/)	(6/)	(6/)	(6/)

1/ All data subject to revision. 2/ Data include recipients of payments made without Federal participation and payments to these recipients as follows: California, $14,341 to 70 recipients and Missouri, $62,960 to 787 recipients. 3/ Does not include $676,395 to 8,304 recipients under State blind pension program in Pennsylvania administered under State law without Federal participation. 4/ Represents aid to the blind under program for aid to the aged, blind, or disabled or for such aid and medical assistance for the aged. 5/ Data for November; January data not received. 6/ Average payment not computed on base of fewer than 50 recipients; percentage change on fewer than 100 recipients. 7/ Increase of less than 0.05 percent. 8/ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.

Table 6. Aid to the permanently and totally disabled: Recipients and payments to recipients by State, January 1966 1/

/Includes vendor payments for medical care and cases receiving only such payments/

State	Number of recipients	Payments to recipients		Percentage change from--			
		Total amount	Average	December 1965 in--		January 1965 in--	
				Number	Amount	Number	Amount
Total.....	574,011	$48,393,773	$84.31	-0.2	-3.6	+7.4	+13.9
Ala.....	14,787	744,485	50.35	-.3	+7.3	-.3	+8.3
Alaska 2/.....	240	31,233	130.14	+.8	+.1	+17.6	+40.3
Ariz.....	4,092	273,767	66.90	+2.1	+2.0	+21.1	+20.1
Ark.....	9,788	619,736	63.32	+1.1	-.2	+3.2	+5.9
Calif.....	83,570	10,043,938	120.19	+2.1	+2.5	+34.5	+42.5
Colo.....	6,408	514,462	80.28	+.7	+3.5	-37.6	+2.2
Conn.....	8,922	694,920	77.89	+1.3	+3.0	+13.8	+15.5
Del.....	500	37,390	74.78	+2.2	+3.1	+12.4	+11.5
Dist. of Col.....	3,441	281,367	81.77	+1.4	+1.9	+7.2	+6.2
Fla. 2/.....	18,390	1,268,553	68.98	+.6	+1.4	+6.5	+1.6
Ga.....	27,618	1,689,940	61.19	+.3	-1.3	+2.6	+6.2
Guam 3/.....	46	1,942	(4/)	---	---	---	---
Hawaii 2/.....	1,042	95,561	91.71	-21.5	-52.9	-4.9	-34.1
Idaho.....	3,169	184,958	58.36	+.4	+1.1	+5.4	+8.9
Ill. 2/.....	28,943	2,154,223	74.43	-5.1	-33.8	-.4	-23.3
Ind.....	1,803	255,472	141.69	+2.3	+4.5	+28.1	+39.3
Iowa.....	1,432	139,246	97.24	+1.2	-.3	+16.0	+37.7
Kans. 2/.....	5,310	631,390	118.91	+1.3	+.1	+7.1	+11.6
Ky. 2/.....	12,073	952,431	78.89	+.6	+2.0	+13.6	+22.6
La.....	19,892	1,198,269	60.24	+1.0	+3.6	+2.4	+6.1
Maine 2/.....	2,264	208,383	92.04	0	+.9	+.2	+3.6
Md. 2/.....	8,175	762,436	93.26	+.7	-.6	+6.1	+24.4
Mass.....	13,645	2,037,554	149.33	+1.2	+1.4	+7.5	+16.8
Mich.....	13,926	1,601,475	115.00	+2.1	+14.5	+42.5	+53.9
Minn.....	4,498	306,848	68.22	-6.9	-50.7	+20.2	+34.0
Miss.....	19,699	901,081	45.74	+.4	+.3	+6.7	+12.4
Mo.....	15,609	1,213,722	77.76	(5/)	+6.3	+3.6	+13.0
Mont.....	1,615	100,386	62.16	-1.7	-1.5	+19.2	-5.6
Nebr. 2/.....	2,970	344,052	115.84	+.7	-5.4	+13.3	+36.3
N. H.....	644	77,550	120.42	+.8	+.9	+6.1	+13.7
N. J.....	8,909	942,189	105.76	-.1	+1.2	+2.6	+8.5
N. Mex. 2/.....	4,028	406,473	100.91	+.8	+10.8	+7.7	+18.0
N. Y. 2/.....	35,345	4,786,075	135.41	-2.1	-1.9	+1.3	+14.4
N. C.....	23,090	1,825,946	79.08	(6/)	+3.5	+4.1	+14.5
N. Dak. 2/.....	1,549	115,646	74.66	-12.1	-47.9	-3.7	-36.0
Ohio.....	19,979	1,700,980	85.14	-.2	-3.6	+3.3	+14.3
Okla. 2/.....	15,394	1,449,932	94.19	+.6	-16.2	+9.8	-7.6
Oreg.....	8,617	610,322	70.83	+2.0	+1.7	+7.8	+10.3
Pa.....	19,893	1,424,583	71.61	-7.2	-24.2	-3.4	-10.2
P. R. 2/.....	20,179	174,662	8.66	-.3	-2.5	-3.4	-3.1
R. I. 2/.....	2,911	281,972	96.86	0	+.2	+2.2	+4.4
S. C.....	9,211	518,963	56.34	+.3	+1.4	+3.2	+6.6
S. Dak.....	1,149	89,936	78.27	-.3	+1.3	+3.9	+17.0
Tenn.....	14,179	828,060	58.40	+.7	+3.6	+7.9	+16.6
Tex.....	10,156	598,211	58.90	+.5	+4.1	+4.1	+7.3
Utah.....	4,965	366,253	73.77	+.2	-4.1	+.1	+5.8
Vt. 2/.....	1,355	119,765	88.39	+.4	+.5	+13.8	-23.1
V. I.....	49	1,966	(4/)	(4/)	(4/)	(4/)	(4/)
Va.....	6,894	512,383	74.32	+.1	+.9	-.2	+8.0
Wash.....	18,709	1,078,691	57.66	-.6	-11.2	+3.9	+5.8
W. Va.....	5,773	309,126	53.55	-.1	+.1	-1.1	+3.6
Wis.....	6,441	820,220	127.34	-1.4	-1.9	+4.9	+14.4
Wyo.....	725	64,649	89.17	+.8	+3.8	+13.3	+14.7

1/ All data subject to revision. 2/ Represents aid to the permanently and totally disabled under program for aid to the aged, blind, or disabled or for such aid and medical assistance for the aged. 3/ November data; January data not received. 4/ Average payment not computed on base of fewer than 50 recipients, percentage change on fewer than 100 recipients. 5/ Increase of less than 0.05 percent. 6/ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.

Table 7. Aid to families with dependent children: Recipients and payments to recipients, by State, January 1966 1/

/Includes vendor payments for medical care and cases receiving only such payments/

State	Number of families	Number of recipients		Payments to recipients			Percentage change from--			
					Average per--		Dec. 1965 in--		Jan. 1965 in--	
		Total 2/	Children	Total amount	Family	Recipient	Number of recipients	Amount	Number of recipients	Amount
Total 3/ 4/..	1,077,590	4,497,861	3,386,885	$157,283,614	$145.96	$34.97	+0.9	-0.7	+2.9	+7.9
Alabama 3/.....	17,254	70,726	56,084	900,533	52.19	12.73	(5/)	+7.7	-7.5	+.2
Alaska 3/.....	1,254	4,666	3,590	164,077	130.84	35.16	+.1	+.6	+.6	+.8
Arizona 3/.....	9,359	40,414	30,748	1,136,629	121.45	28.12	+.5	+.7	-.3	-1.7
Arkansas.....	7,409	31,200	23,602	528,276	71.30	16.93	+.9	+.5	+4.7	+6.9
California 3/ 4/	151,840	632,505	465,533	28,562,544	188.11	45.16	+4.1	+3.6	+17.0	+19.2
Colorado.....	12,308	45,723	35,463	1,821,815	148.02	39.84	+1.0	+3.8	+8.9	+19.2
Connecticut 4/..	13,761	55,440	41,177	2,635,990	191.56	47.55	+.5	-2.7	-8.6	-7.2
Delaware 4/.....	2,776	12,368	9,448	356,458	128.41	28.82	+4.5	+4.9	-3.3	+.3
Dist of Col....	4,675	22,330	18,026	742,067	158.73	33.23	-1.2	-1.4	+11.7	+13.5
Florida.....	28,025	108,758	87,016	1,721,425	61.42	15.83	-.5	+1.4	+2.7	+1.8
Georgia.....	19,801	78,953	61,083	1,887,683	95.33	23.91	+2.0	+6.2	+9.4	+18.2
Guam 6/.....	139	723	607	13,300	95.68	18.40	---	---	---	---
Hawaii 4/.....	3,390	14,834	11,048	574,383	169.43	38.72	-.5	-15.1	+6.3	+11.0
Idaho.....	2,563	9,989	7,318	395,461	154.30	39.59	+1.5	+2.5	+.5	+2.6
Illinois 3/ 4/..	53,722	253,729	197,974	10,280,994	191.37	40.52	+.2	-10.5	-3.2	-13.1
Indiana 3/.....	11,691	48,544	36,633	1,578,973	135.06	32.53	-.3	+2.9	+.4	+12.3
Iowa.....	11,438	46,043	33,613	1,906,089	166.65	41.40	-.1	-.7	+6.1	+14.5
Kansas 3/ 4/....	8,867	37,407	28,947	1,518,151	171.21	40.58	-1.0	+.7	+1.2	+5.3
Kentucky 3/.....	21,325	83,638	60,298	2,195,482	102.95	26.25	-.3	+3.8	+3.4	+11.2
Louisiana 3/....	24,358	107,411	82,105	2,579,352	105.89	24.01	+.7	+4.7	+2.7	+7.2
Maine.....	5,044	18,831	13,945	586,007	116.18	31.12	+2.6	+3.5	-1.0	+7.0
Maryland 3/ 4/..	21,714	91,003	70,246	3,449,910	158.88	37.91	+1.7	+1.3	+11.3	+27.9
Massachusetts 4/	27,536	104,080	78,194	5,097,187	185.11	48.97	+1.0	-.1	+10.8	+16.0
Michigan 3/ 4/..	37,933	155,123	115,873	5,658,319	149.17	36.48	+.2	+1.6	-5.2	-3.4
Minnesota 3/....	14,326	52,615	40,353	2,433,703	169.88	46.25	-1.6	-11.5	+3.5	-2.2
Mississippi.....	20,495	83,496	67,223	698,325	34.07	8.36	+.6	+3.0	+1.5	-14.5
Missouri 3/.....	26,031	107,441	82,528	2,708,442	104.05	25.21	-.2	+3.5	+.2	+4.6
Montana.....	1,984	7,921	6,160	287,106	144.71	36.25	+.9	+.8	+11.6	+11.8
Nebraska 3/ 4/..	4,552	18,716	14,376	620,383	136.29	33.15	+2.2	(7/)	+16.3	+25.5
Nevada.....	1,307	5,432	4,294	173,315	132.61	31.91	-2.2	-1.3	+4.9	+7.3
New Hampshire...	1,146	4,685	3,495	218,082	190.30	46.55	-.6	+1.8	+5.6	+12.5
New Jersey.....	28,681	114,434	86,953	5,880,419	205.03	51.39	+1.1	+2.0	+9.6	+13.0
New Mexico 3/...	7,348	30,422	23,214	1,035,130	140.87	34.03	+.7	+3.7	+3.2	+2.4
New York 4/.....	136,307	578,263	425,204	28,248,653	207.24	48.85	+2.1	-2.5	+9.3	+19.4
North Carolina 3/	26,724	111,299	83,496	2,905,607	108.73	26.11	+.9	+3.3	-.4	+6.0
North Dakota....	1,959	7,938	6,080	318,141	162.40	40.08	-2.4	-15.5	+2.5	-8.9
Ohio 4/.....	45,127	191,109	142,952	6,347,758	140.66	33.22	-.4	+1.7	+2.1	+9.3
Oklahoma 3/ 4/..	18,832	75,461	56,240	2,525,038	134.08	33.46	+.1	-1.9	+3.8	+7.6
Oregon 3/ 4/....	8,924	35,766	26,106	1,475,454	165.34	41.25	+5.0	+4.5	+14.0	+20.2
Pennsylvania 4/.	60,685	266,367	194,636	8,564,148	141.12	32.15	-3.6	-8.2	-14.1	-13.4
Puerto Rico.....	46,876	190,425	152,232	782,925	16.70	4.11	-.6	-.6	-5.7	-5.5
Rhode Island 4/.	6,048	24,016	17,778	1,043,162	172.48	43.44	+2.6	+2.6	-1.4	+.8
South Carolina..	6,867	27,240	21,985	436,545	63.57	16.03	+.1	(7/)	-8.0	-7.8
South Dakota....	3,153	11,831	8,924	388,120	123.10	32.81	+.9	+1.6	+7.6	+12.6
Tennessee 3/....	20,202	81,670	62,566	1,990,908	98.55	24.38	+.8	+1.1	+7.4	+17.1
Texas.....	21,017	95,331	72,141	2,004,404	95.37	21.03	+.6	+5.9	+4.3	+17.8
Utah 3/ 4/.....	5,787	23,669	17,078	826,534	142.83	34.92	+3.4	-1.9	+3.7	+13.6
Vermont.....	1,463	5,592	4,135	165,680	113.25	29.63	+1.9	+2.4	+3.2	+3.0
Virgin Islands..	314	1,220	1,038	23,855	75.97	19.55	-4.0	-.6	+.8	+7.0
Virginia 3/.....	10,989	46,886	36,133	1,194,712	108.72	25.48	+.5	-.4	+1.4	+4.7
Washington 3/ 4/	17,320	69,918	50,081	2,571,332	148.46	36.78	+5.0	-.2	-8.0	-2.1
West Virginia 3/4/	23,034	107,388	74,983	2,879,182	125.00	26.81	+.2	+1.4	-8.0	-5.1
Wisconsin 3/....	10,849	42,881	32,345	2,087,034	192.37	48.67	-1.7	-6.7	-2.6	-1.2
Wyoming.....	1,061	3,991	3,085	158,412	149.30	39.69	+.2	+4.3	+15.4	+17.8

1/ All data subject to revision. 2/ Includes as recipients the children and 1 or both parents or 1 caretaker relative other than a parent in families in which the requirements of such adults were considered in determining the amount of assistance. 3/ Includes data on foster-family care; see table 10. 4/ Includes data on unemployed-parent segment; see table 8. 5/ Increase of less than 0.05 percent. 6/ Data for November; January data not received. 7/ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.

Table 8. Aid to families with dependent children, unemployed-parent segment: Recipients and payments to recipients, January 1966 1/

/Includes vendor payments for medical care and cases receiving only such payments/

State	Number of families	Number of recipients		Payments to recipients			Percentage change from--			
		Total 2/	Children	Total	Average per--		December 1965 in--		January 1965 in--	
					Family	Recipient	Number of recipients	Amount	Number of recipients	Amount
Total...	66,411	387,939	263,308	$13,084,851	$197.03	$33.73	+8.0	+4.4	-12.3	-9.4
Calif.....	19,914	116,969	79,967	4,184,125	210.11	35.77	+12.5	+4.4	+25.4	+17.7
Colo.....	100	620	420	15,297	152.97	24.67	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)
Conn.....	1,012	6,132	4,167	182,858	180.69	29.82	+5.5	-9.9	-48.6	-54.0
Del.....	256	1,524	1,059	40,455	158.03	26.55	+30.0	+26.6	-40.1	-37.4
Hawaii.....	269	1,727	1,189	57,111	212.31	33.07	-2.9	-17.6	-9.6	-2.6
Ill.....	4,192	27,604	19,403	1,050,123	250.51	38.04	+1.4	-10.8	-31.8	-39.0
Kans.....	374	2,149	1,607	82,336	220.15	38.31	+1.7	+9.4	-21.4	-15.1
Md.....	628	3,692	2,473	121,135	192.89	32.81	+36.9	+40.5	-11.3	+2.3
Mass.....	626	3,644	2,498	165,175	263.86	45.33	+4.0	-8.5	-.6	-.7
Mich.....	2,114	13,490	9,350	426,914	201.95	31.65	+1.4	+4.9	-42.6	-41.4
Nebr.....	37	248	174	5,608	(4/)	(4/)	(4/)	(4/)	(5/)	(5/)
N. Y.....	14,845	84,105	57,070	3,073,572	207.04	36.54	+10.8	+6.0	-10.2	-2.2
Ohio.....	4,028	23,614	16,079	723,254	179.56	30.63	-.3	-3.1	-7.8	-1.5
Okla.....	46	272	184	8,145	(4/)	(4/)	+6.2	+6.7	+147.3	+152.1
Oreg.....	1,177	6,781	4,560	261,195	221.92	38.52	+20.8	+22.1	+18.3	+21.3
Pa.....	4,295	24,599	16,330	652,456	151.91	26.52	-2.0	+4.5	-45.0	-43.1
R. I.....	328	1,987	1,343	68,439	208.66	34.44	+12.5	+11.1	-42.7	-44.8
Utah.....	1,167	6,306	4,284	140,143	120.09	22.22	+10.7	+9.0	-5.5	+23.3
Wash.....	2,346	13,543	8,953	381,769	162.73	28.19	+20.3	+20.5	-33.1	-30.5
W. Va.....	8,657	48,933	32,198	1,444,741	166.89	29.52	+1.4	+12.0	-15.3	-4.6

1/ Data for this segment of the program, shown separately here, are included in data for the total program. All data subject to revision. 2/ Includes as recipients the children and 1 or both parents or 1 caretaker relative other than a parent in families in which the requirements of such adults were considered in determining the amount of assistance. 3/ Program initiated January 1966. 4/ Average payment not computed on base of fewer than 50 families; percentage change on fewer than 100 recipients. 5/ No program in operation in January 1965.

Table 9. Aid to families with dependent children: Recipients and money payments to recipients under community work and training programs, by State, January 1966 1/

State	Number of families with an adult on work and training programs	Number of recipients				Money payments to recipients			
		Total 2/	Adults		Children	Total	For work performed on work and training programs	Average per family	
			On work and training programs	Other				Total	For work performed on work and training programs
Total.....	19,978	113,505	19,985	17,219	76,301	$3,633,902	$2,535,930	$181.90	$126.94
California.....	6,015	33,428	6,022	4,807	22,599	1,325,684	518,764	220.40	86.25
Colorado.....	89	557	89	89	379	13,180	4,438	148.09	49.87
Illinois.....	1,203	7,334	1,203	1,013	5,118	273,937	208,527	227.71	173.34
Kansas.....	123	742	123	113	506	31,134	16,474	253.12	133.93
Maryland.....	94	543	94	90	359	17,354	9,308	184.62	99.02
Michigan.....	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)	---	---
Ohio.....	2,995	17,341	2,995	2,249	12,097	651,848	512,403	217.65	171.09
Oregon.....	250	1,485	250	228	1,007	55,325	21,933	221.30	87.73
Pennsylvania.....	404	2,326	404	404	1,518	75,801	59,626	187.63	147.59
Washington.....	148	816	148	148	520	22,500	17,318	152.03	117.01
West Virginia.....	8,657	48,933	8,657	8,078	32,198	1,167,139	1,167,139	134.82	134.82

1/ Represents data for community work and training programs under plans for such programs submitted under Section 409 of Social Security Act. 2/ Includes as recipients the children and 1 or both parents or 1 caretaker relative other than a parent in families in which the requirements of such adults were considered in determining the amount of assistance. 3/ Data not reported.

Table 10. Aid to families with dependent children receiving foster care: Recipients and payments for foster care, by State, January 1966 1/

State	Number of				Payments for foster care			
	Children receiving foster care			Families from which children were removed	Total amount	Average per child	In foster homes	In institutions
	Total	In foster homes	In institutions					
Total.....	7,686	2/ 5,772	2/ 321	3,086	$720,882	$93.79	2/$417,689	2/ $51,934
Ala.....	2	2	0	2	82	(3/)	82	0
Alaska.....	81	81	0	27	7,554	93.26	7,554	0
Ariz.....	189	189	0	71	12,067	63.85	12,067	0
Calif.....	1,470	1,316	154	693	146,146	99.42	114,833	31,313
Ill.....	1,593	(2/)	(2/)	609	251,259	157.73	(2/)	(2/)
Ind.....	136	136	0	45	5,350	39.34	5,350	0
Kans.....	133	126	7	56	12,010	90.30	11,596	414
Ky.....	47	44	3	16	3,260	(3/)	3,050	210
La.....	643	604	39	264	51,609	80.26	46,915	4,694
Md.....	853	815	38	258	67,943	79.65	63,880	4,063
Mich.....	52	48	4	21	3,351	64.44	2,991	360
Minn.....	135	104	31	69	21,658	160.43	13,410	8,248
Mo.....	60	60	0	14	3,268	54.47	3,268	0
Nebraska.....	3	0	3	2	181	(3/)	0	181
N. Mex.....	94	94	0	18	5,305	56.44	5,305	0
N. C.....	12	12	0	3	685	(3/)	685	0
Okla.....	353	353	0	154	16,538	46.85	16,538	0
Oreg.....	158	158	0	71	11,394	72.11	11,394	0
Tenn.....	313	278	35	105	21,332	68.15	19,384	1,948
Utah.....	366	366	0	177	21,550	58.88	21,550	0
Va.....	68	68	0	21	2,948	43.35	2,948	0
Wash.....	627	627	0	272	36,371	58.01	36,371	0
W. Va.....	109	102	7	43	6,699	61.46	6,196	503
Wisc.....	189	189	0	75	12,322	65.20	12,322	0

1/ Data for this segment of the program, shown separately here, are included in data for the total program. All data subject to revision. 2/ Excludes Illinois; breakdown not available. 3/ Average payment not computed on base of fewer than 50 children.

Table 11. Medical assistance: Recipients and payments for recipients, January 1966 1/

State	Number of recipients	Payments for recipients	
		Total amount	Average
Total, 7 States.....	(2/)	$20,450,201	---
Total, 6 States reporting completely..	362,213	20,283,807	$56.00
Hawaii.....	1,706	494,104	289.63
Illinois.....	3/ 245,874	6,865,590	27.92
Minnesota.....	51,877	5,406,774	104.22
North Dakota.....	7,232	564,688	78.08
Oklahoma 4/.....	1,123	169,312	150.77
Pennsylvania.....	54,401	6,783,339	124.69
Puerto Rico.....	(2/)	166,394	---

1/ Program initiated January 1966 under Public Law 89-97. All data subject to revision.
2/ Number of recipients not reported by Puerto Rico.
3/ Partly estimated.
4/ Data represent payments in behalf of recipients of medical care only. No payments were made in January out of title XIX pooled fund that was established January 1 for money-payment recipients under other public assistance titles. Payments in January out of pooled fund for other public assistance titles for obligations incurred prior to January 1 amounted to $2,207,486 and were made in behalf of 20,489 recipients.

Table 12. General assistance: Recipients and payments to recipients, by State, January 1966 1/

/Excludes vendor payments for medical care and cases receiving only such payments/

State	Number of--		Payments to recipients			Percentage change from--			
				Average per--		December 1965 in--		January 1965 in--	
	Cases	Recipients	Total amount	Case	Recipient	Number of recipients	Amount	Number of recipients	Amount
Total 2/	319,000	715,000	$21,702,000	$68.09	$30.36	+5.6	+1.4	-11.5	-6.5
Alabama	81	81	1,018	12.57	12.57	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)
Alaska	177	596	10,732	60.63	18.01	+4.0	+33.5	-26.7	-25.8
Arizona	3,546	13,156	197,107	55.59	14.98	+109.5	+61.5	+138.2	+65.8
Arkansas	418	1,658	6,533	15.63	3.94	+21.3	+14.6	+2.0	+1.9
California	22,090	38,862	1,317,944	59.66	33.91	+1.1	+3.8	-17.5	-4.3
Colorado	1,462	5,790	78,409	53.63	13.54	+26.1	+33.4	-36.7	-43.0
Connecticut	4/ 4,547	4/ 13,405	4/ 333,169	73.27	24.85	-.6	-3.2	+10.1	+3.2
Delaware	1,477	2,600	75,433	51.07	29.01	+4.6	+6.7	-11.1	-10.8
Dist. of Col.	804	874	62,633	77.90	71.66	-5.2	-3.5	+10.1	+10.9
Florida 5/	8,300	(6/)	254,000	---	---	---	---	---	---
Georgia	2,419	6,316	73,990	30.59	11.71	-2.2	-5.4	-2.6	+1.5
Guam 7/	34	43	1,366	(3/)	(3/)	---	---	---	---
Hawaii	1,062	1,546	93,895	88.41	60.73	+5.1	-2.8	+16.4	+24.6
Illinois	22,857	50,920	1,790,186	78.32	35.16	+3.0	-3.2	-21.4	-22.0
Iowa 2/	3,800	9,200	152,000	---	---	---	---	---	---
Kansas	2,926	7,713	207,184	70.81	26.86	+14.6	+2.3	-7.5	-5.1
Kentucky	1,283	3,708	45,453	35.43	12.26	+4.6	+4.4	-15.8	-13.3
Louisiana	7,487	8,255	388,395	51.88	47.05	-2.5	-3.2	-8.9	-9.0
Maine	2,738	9,238	130,031	47.49	14.08	+3.8	-4.9	-14.7	-21.4
Maryland	8,498	9,565	657,504	77.37	68.74	+2.6	+2.0	+10.9	+20.9
Massachusetts	7,693	15,050	520,403	67.65	34.58	-4.8	-11.3	-11.7	-10.3
Michigan	18,725	55,579	1,673,178	89.36	30.10	-6.5	+2.5	-16.6	+.6
Minnesota	8,212	24,812	674,529	82.14	27.19	+8.7	+4.7	-29.9	-32.5
Mississippi	1,089	1,330	19,559	17.96	14.71	-5.2	-3.2	-18.7	+3.4
Missouri	9,922	12,888	652,354	65.75	50.62	+1.7	+.7	-3.9	-2.2
Montana	1,468	4,634	86,516	58.93	18.67	+25.3	+27.5	-4.6	+4.1
Nevada	401	827	24,348	60.72	29.44	-24.1	+3.6	+.4	+11.0
New Hampshire	825	2,782	51,483	62.40	18.51	+7.3	-4.6	-34.5	-33.9
New Jersey 8/	10,406	34,056	1,201,780	115.49	35.29	+13.2	+4.6	-16.2	-13.3
New Mexico	297	636	12,482	42.03	19.63	+4.1	+.3	+14.8	+3.4
New York 9/	52,053	114,259	4,728,369	90.84	41.38	+1.8	+.2	+7.1	+14.8
North Carolina	1,961	6,057	45,835	23.37	7.57	+16.9	+1.0	-7.8	-13.9
North Dakota	539	2,332	37,157	68.94	15.93	+39.4	+49.9	-24.1	-20.0
Ohio	26,886	86,726	1,766,842	65.72	20.37	+12.7	+1.5	-15.3	-10.1
Oklahoma	8,757	(6/)	103,316	11.80	---	---	+8.3	---	+.5
Oregon	4,477	(6/)	259,530	57.97	---	---	+17.0	---	-27.0
Pennsylvania	32,172	39,043	2,216,499	68.90	56.77	+.3	+.6	-13.7	-8.3
Puerto Rico	1,069	1,069	9,042	8.46	8.46	-20.0	-20.8	-20.9	-22.4
Rhode Island	2,653	6,885	157,173	59.24	22.83	+.8	-18.8	-10.7	-23.2
South Carolina	1,221	1,386	36,364	29.78	26.24	+1.2	-.5	-10.1	-8.9
South Dakota	464	1,581	19,091	41.14	12.08	+17.5	+68.2	-30.3	-19.0
Tennessee	1,995	3,912	53,039	26.59	13.56	+35.6	+23.9	+1.0	+.6
Texas 10/	8,700	(6/)	270,000	---	---	---	---	---	---
Utah	773	924	51,346	66.42	55.57	+.9	+7.7	-85.5	-67.6
Vermont 10/	1,100	(6/)	37,000	---	---	---	---	---	---
Virgin Islands	207	216	8,084	39.05	37.43	-3.1	+1.3	+22.0	+25.7
Virginia	2,928	7,220	145,542	49.71	20.16	+1.0	-.6	-1.2	-2.1
Washington	8,290	14,148	586,186	70.71	41.43	+11.8	+7.5	-34.2	-24.5
West Virginia	1,662	2,800	59,393	35.74	21.21	+5.1	-.4	+4.6	-.3
Wisconsin	6,190	19,863	550,492	88.93	27.71	+7.1	+.5	-17.5	-24.9
Wyoming	571	2,187	42,191	73.89	19.29	+31.6	+23.4	-19.8	-25.2

1/ All data subject to revision. 2/ Partly estimated; does not represent sum of State figures because totals exclude for New Jersey an estimated number of cases and persons receiving only medical care, hospitalization, and/or burial and payments for such services; recipient count also includes an estimate for States not reporting such data. Excludes Idaho, Indiana, and Nebraska; data not available. 3/ Average payment not computed on base of fewer than 50 recipients; percentage change on fewer than 100 recipients. 4/ About 12 percent of this total is estimated. 5/ Partly estimated. 6/ Data not available. 7/ Data for November; January data not received. 8/ Includes an unknown number of cases and persons receiving only medical care, hospitalization, and/or burial, and total payments for such services. 9/ Includes an unknown number of cases and persons receiving only medical care. 10/ Estimated on basis of reports from sample of local jurisdictions.

Table 13. Amount of vendor payments for medical care for recipients of public assistance, by program and State, January 1966 1/

State	Old-age assistance	Medical assistance for the aged	Aid to the blind	Aid to the permanently and totally disabled	Aid to families with dependent children	Medical assistance	General assistance 1/
Total.....	$32,469,701	$45,100,657	$884,487	$10,583,630	$10,444,748	$20,450,201	$8,101,000
Ala.....	1,426,780	81,092	4,675	76,079	299	(2/)	---
Alaska 3/.....	30,800	(2/)	---	14,285	---	(2/)	49,338
Ariz.....	84,203	(2/)	---	---	---	(2/)	---
Ark.....	875,035	194,736	23,621	249,733	46,444	(2/)	27,366
Calif.....	3,403,420	11,129,220	260,003	1,456,038	1,545,292	(2/)	---
Colo.....	744,961	4/ 1,068,038	4,814	112,543	152,349	(2/)	34,063
Conn.....	122,694	4/ 1,424,605	13,359	296,839	309,685	(2/)	---
Del.....	28,476	19,998	1,354	---	---	(2/)	---
Dist. of Col....	50,499	328,735	297	30,018	1,536	(2/)	125
Fla. 3/.....	1,107,363	265,659	15,781	202,277	48,670	(2/)	---
Ga.....	992,866	(2/)	15,493	155,743	35,460	(2/)	---
Guam 5/.....	1,458	2,475	---	575	1,435	(2/)	---
Hawaii.....	---	(2/)	---	---	---	494,104	25,238
Idaho.....	55,612	393,652	90	25,559	---	(2/)	---
Ill.....	---	(2/)	---	---	---	6,865,590	801,722
Ind.....	1,037,311	183,330	63,277	169,983	322,617	(2/)	---
Iowa.....	1,024,891	828,260	11,818	19,104	194,837	(2/)	6/ 213,000
Kans. 3/.....	473,624	4/ 555,990	14,781	148,224	260,244	(2/)	136,832
Ky. 3/.....	740,375	428,425	20,035	176,686	295,324	(2/)	---
La.....	2,391,593	102,296	6,725	118,711	32,128	(2/)	4,075
Maine 3/.....	365,364	145,013	3,312	48,676	30,264	(2/)	81,161
Md. 3/.....	509,486	7/ 506,438	7,986	233,352	341,261	(2/)	5,433
Mass.....	1,080,125	4/ 5,575,007	51,150	1,139,538	652,063	(2/)	196,789
Mich.....	1,049,765	3,047,199	29,260	356,169	377,576	(2/)	721,594
Minn.....	---	(2/)	---	---	---	5,406,774	249,205
Miss.....	148,267	(2/)	2,485	---	---	(2/)	---
Mo.....	1,174,096	(2/)	---	87,690	48,017	(2/)	20,117
Mont.....	94,264	315,072	---	389	371	(2/)	347,149
Nebr. 3/.....	488,373	4/ 620,800	25,164	191,692	97,812	(2/)	---
Nev.....	23,115	4/ 83,996	1,944	(2/)	10,764	(2/)	152,394
N. H.....	106,231	114,904	4,967	23,412	37,712	(2/)	---
N. J.....	348,126	4/ 1,507,376	13,305	280,574	352,263	(2/)	274,462
N. Mex. 3/.....	300,590	20,154	11,030	126,056	136,931	(2/)	5,775
N. Y. 3/.....	1,262,601	9,807,947	87,810	2,131,762	2,729,353	(2/)	281,996
N. C.....	567,851	310,010	26,876	458,641	339,380	(2/)	70,568
N. Dak.....	---	(2/)	---	---	---	564,688	16,270
Ohio.....	1,968,006	(2/)	48,215	328,307	610,083	(2/)	891,907
Okla.....	---	(2/)	---	---	---	169,312	---
Oreg.....	155,541	640,867	5,606	196,776	166,723	(2/)	80,507
Pa.....	---	(2/)	---	---	---	6,783,339	357,584
P. R.....	---	(2/)	---	---	---	166,394	---
R. I. 3/.....	97,560	1,218,554	1,953	58,046	146,738	(2/)	74,275
S. C.....	387,671	220,305	15,951	103,128	22,862	(2/)	13,857
S. Dak.....	235,847	131,608	513	21,104	---	(2/)	112,588
Tenn.....	625,086	397,279	3,074	45,373	67,337	(2/)	---
Tex.....	3,334,353	(2/)	---	---	---	(2/)	---
Utah.....	50,890	268,750	2,891	160,486	64,248	(2/)	2,068
Vt. 3/.....	231,910	31,580	1,627	38,413	---	(2/)	---
V. I.....	1,296	722	2	49	156	(2/)	199
Va.....	290,982	279,002	15,160	115,240	55,908	(2/)	22,804
Wash.....	541,311	1,481,613	10,087	509,869	260,508	(2/)	81,759
W. Va.....	201,915	414,556	11,280	74,087	377,016	(2/)	15,059
Wis.....	2,188,881	928,372	44,313	587,368	259,102	(2/)	314,170
Wyo.....	48,237	27,022	2,403	15,036	13,980	(2/)	43,102

1/ Data incomplete. Some States do not report these data and for some the data represent only partial reporting. The total includes an estimated amount for these States. 2/ No program in operation. 3/ Except for aid to families with dependent children and general assistance, data represent payments for recipients of the specified type of assistance under program for aid to the aged, blind, or disabled or for such aid and medical assistance for the aged. 4/ Includes money payments not subject to Federal participation as follows: $28,074 in Colorado, $5 in Connecticut. $15,643 in Kansas, $94,223 in Massachusetts, $14,528 in Nebraska, $981 in Nevada, $8,190 in New Jersey, and $49,751 in New York. 5/ Data for November; January data not received. 6/ Partly estimated. 7/ Estimated.

Table 14. Average payment per recipient for all assistance, for money payments, and for vendor payments for medical care, by program and State, January 1966 1/

State	Old-age assistance			Medical assistance for the aged	Aid to the blind			Aid to the permanently and totally disabled			Aid to families with dependent children (per recipient)			Medical assistance
	All assistance	Money payments to recipients	Vendor payments for medical care		All assistance	Money payments to recipients	Vendor payments for medical care	All assistance	Money payments to recipients	Vendor payments for medical care	All assistance	Money payments to recipients	Vendor payments for medical care	
Total	$78.40	$63.02	$15.39	$181.25	$92.04	$81.71	$10.34	$84.31	$65.87	$18.44	$34.97	$32.65	$2.32	2/$56.00
Ala.	72.05	59.28	12.77	333.71	69.04	66.55	2.49	50.35	45.20	5.14	12.73	12.73	(3/)	(4/)
Alaska 5/	92.98	70.69	22.29	(4/)	79.32	79.32	---	130.14	70.62	59.52	35.16	35.16	---	(4/)
Ariz.	68.63	56.32	6.31	(4/)	71.58	71.58	---	66.90	66.90	---	28.12	28.12	---	(4/)
Ark.	64.37	49.81	14.56	64.33	71.85	59.54	12.30	63.32	37.80	25.51	16.93	15.44	1.49	(4/)
Calif.	108.93	96.71	12.22	293.81	146.54	125.81	20.73	120.19	102.76	17.42	45.16	42.71	2.44	(4/)
Colo.	96.18	78.71	17.47	188.93	91.53	71.14	20.40	80.28	62.72	17.56	39.84	36.51	3.33	(4/)
Conn.	80.00	59.65	20.35	183.49	112.03	68.37	43.66	77.89	44.62	33.27	47.55	41.96	5.59	(4/)
Del.	71.24	52.04	19.20	112.35	82.98	78.81	4.17	74.78	74.78	---	28.82	28.82	---	(4/)
Dist. of Col.	84.83	63.02	21.81	417.18	74.61	73.09	1.52	81.77	73.05	8.72	33.23	33.16	.07	(4/)
Fla. 5/	65.26	50.42	14.85	335.01	68.40	62.30	6.10	68.98	57.98	11.00	15.83	15.38	.45	(4/)
Ga.	58.18	47.49	10.69	(4/)	61.60	56.74	4.86	61.19	55.55	5.64	23.91	23.46	.45	(4/)
Guam 6/	43.76	35.52	8.24	(7/)	(7/)	(7/)	---	(7/)	(7/)	(7/)	18.40	16.41	1.98	(4/)
Hawaii 5/	75.63	75.63	---	(4/)	94.79	94.79	---	91.71	91.71	---	38.72	38.72	---	289.63
Idaho	77.04	62.86	14.19	146.12	71.45	70.70	.74	58.36	50.30	8.07	39.59	39.59	---	(4/)
Ill. 5/	56.19	56.19	---	(4/)	70.06	70.06	---	74.43	74.43	---	40.52	40.52	---	27.92
Ind.	92.46	44.46	48.00	169.28	98.09	61.39	36.70	141.69	47.41	94.28	32.53	25.88	6.65	(4/)
Iowa	94.85	55.99	38.86	116.28	102.56	91.75	10.81	97.24	83.90	13.34	41.40	37.17	4.23	(4/)
Kans. 5/	92.36	68.96	23.41	158.40	108.35	77.49	30.86	118.91	90.99	27.91	40.58	33.63	6.96	(4/)
Ky. 5/	62.69	50.20	12.48	35.92	72.97	65.00	7.98	78.89	64.25	14.63	26.25	22.72	3.53	(4/)
La.	84.31	66.04	18.26	193.74	80.20	77.67	2.53	60.24	54.27	5.97	24.01	23.71	.30	(4/)
Maine 5/	86.64	52.64	33.99	268.05	86.41	73.91	12.50	92.04	70.54	21.50	31.12	29.51	1.61	(4/)
Md. 5/	92.35	43.01	49.34	8/ 40.27	87.22	66.32	20.91	93.26	64.72	28.54	37.91	34.16	3.75	(4/)
Mass.	93.02	71.66	21.35	173.62	154.68	132.22	22.46	149.33	65.81	83.51	48.97	42.71	6.27	(4/)
Mich.	91.98	66.76	25.22	395.23	100.38	82.49	17.89	115.00	89.42	25.58	36.48	34.04	2.43	(4/)
Minn.	53.84	53.84	---	(4/)	72.49	72.49	---	68.22	68.22	---	46.25	46.25	---	104.22
Miss.	41.00	38.98	2.03	(4/)	46.82	45.84	.98	45.74	45.74	---	8.36	8.36	---	(4/)
Mo.	74.31	62.51	11.80	(4/)	80.00	80.00	---	77.76	72.14	5.62	25.21	24.76	.45	(4/)
Mont.	85.54	63.05	22.49	170.59	71.03	71.03	---	62.16	61.92	.24	36.25	36.20	.05	(4/)
Nebr. 5/	90.93	44.77	46.16	211.80	105.70	58.67	47.04	115.84	51.30	64.54	33.15	27.92	5.23	(4/)
Nev.	79.72	69.83	9.89	976.70	107.56	95.56	12.00	(4/)	(4/)	(4/)	31.91	29.92	1.98	(4/)
N. H.	109.53	84.75	24.79	58.48	111.79	91.43	20.36	120.42	84.07	36.35	46.55	38.50	8.05	(4/)
N. J.	89.43	64.57	24.86	254.15	94.20	79.67	14.53	105.76	74.26	31.49	51.39	48.31	3.08	(4/)
N. Mex. 5/	87.66	57.38	30.27	300.81	104.22	72.79	31.42	100.91	69.62	31.29	34.03	29.52	4.50	(4/)
N. Y. 5/	97.56	75.31	22.25	311.67	115.14	86.86	28.28	135.41	75.10	60.31	48.85	44.13	4.72	(4/)
N. C.	67.55	54.05	13.50	97.24	71.70	66.14	5.56	79.08	59.22	19.86	26.11	23.06	3.05	(4/)
N. Dak. 5/	65.05	65.05	---	(4/)	88.44	88.44	---	74.66	74.66	---	40.08	40.08	---	78.08
Ohio	93.04	68.44	24.60	(4/)	88.41	73.01	15.39	85.14	68.71	16.43	33.22	30.02	3.19	(4/)
Okla. 5/	76.54	76.54	---	(4/)	104.80	104.80	---	94.19	94.19	---	33.46	33.46	---	150.77
Oreg.	72.62	56.48	16.14	145.03	94.13	82.71	11.42	70.83	47.99	22.84	41.25	36.59	4.66	(4/)
Pa.	69.13	69.13	---	(4/)	101.12	101.12	---	71.61	71.61	---	32.15	32.15	---	124.69
P. R. 5/	8.59	8.59	---	(4/)	8.64	8.64	---	8.66	8.66	---	4.11	4.11	---	(2/)
R. I. 5/	97.96	80.17	17.79	107.38	98.79	80.53	18.25	96.86	76.92	19.94	43.44	37.33	6.11	(4/)
S. C.	55.48	39.64	15.84	157.36	62.40	53.96	8.44	56.34	45.15	11.20	16.03	15.19	.84	(4/)
S. Dak.	90.95	53.68	37.27	93.27	71.89	67.27	4.62	78.27	59.91	18.37	32.81	32.81	---	(4/)
Tenn.	60.59	46.59	14.00	33.98	58.75	57.25	1.50	58.40	55.20	3.20	24.38	23.55	.82	(4/)
Tex.	73.82	59.22	14.60	(4/)	71.22	71.22	---	58.90	58.90	---	21.03	21.03	---	(4/)
Utah	68.55	57.23	11.32	115.54	74.02	56.60	17.42	73.77	41.44	32.32	34.92	32.21	2.71	(4/)
Vt. 5/	90.90	46.57	44.33	190.24	73.46	60.45	13.02	88.39	60.04	28.35	29.63	29.63	---	(4/)
V. I.	40.45	37.46	2.99	(7/)	(7/)	(7/)	---	(7/)	(7/)	---	19.55	19.43	.13	(4/)
Va.	69.17	46.61	22.56	64.99	73.96	60.69	13.27	74.32	57.61	16.72	25.48	24.29	1.19	(4/)
Wash.	76.07	58.20	17.87	145.21	82.05	67.22	14.83	57.66	30.40	27.25	36.78	33.05	3.73	(4/)
W. Va.	54.97	40.17	14.80	36.24	57.44	42.54	14.90	53.55	40.71	12.83	26.81	23.30	3.51	(4/)
Wisc.	111.06	29.90	81.16	144.56	107.71	49.93	57.77	127.34	36.15	91.19	48.67	42.63	6.04	(4/)
Wyo.	89.24	68.86	20.38	(7/)	116.72	72.22	44.50	89.17	68.43	20.74	39.69	36.19	3.50	(4/)

1/ Averages based on cases receiving money payments, vendor payments for medical care, or both. Money payments may also include small amounts for assistance in kind and vendor payments for other than medical care. Averages for general assistance not computed because of difference among States in policy or practice regarding use of general assistance funds to pay medical bills for recipients of the special types of public assistance. 2/ Number of recipients not reported by Puerto Rico. 3/ Less than 1 cent. 4/ No program in operation. 5/ Except for aid to families with dependent children and medical assistance, data for each program represent average payments for recipients of the specified type of assistance under program for aid to the aged, blind, or disabled or for such aid and medical assistance for the aged. 6/ Data for November; January data not received. 7/ Average payment not computed on base of fewer than 50 recipients. 8/ Estimated.

Table 15. Proportion of population receiving public assistance (recipient rates), by State, December 1965 1/

/All programs except general assistance include recipients receiving only vendor payments for medical care. All data subject to revision/

State	Recipients of old-age assistance per 1,000 population aged 65 and over	Recipients of medical assistance for the aged per 1,000 population aged 65 and over	Recipients of aid to the blind per 100,000 population aged 18 and over	Recipients of aid to the permanently and totally disabled per 1,000 population aged 18-64	Children receiving aid to families with dependent children per 1,000 population under age 18	Recipients of general assistance per 1,000 population under age 65
United States average.....	115	2/ 18.0	76	5.5	47	3/ 4.0
Alabama.....	389	.8	89	8.1	42	(4/)
Alaska.....	229	---	98	2.2	32	2.6
Arizona.....	111	---	84	4.8	47	4.2
Arkansas.....	286	15.0	156	9.4	32	.8
California.....	174	24.2	5/ 106	8.0	67	2.3
Colorado.....	227	30.7	20	6.2	47	2.6
Connecticut.....	22	28.1	17	5.6	41	5.2
Delaware.....	36	3.7	106	1.8	47	5.4
Dist. of Col.....	32	6.9	38	7.6	67	1.3
Florida.....	102	.8	69	6.0	43	(6/)
Georgia.....	287	---	123	12.1	35	1.6
Guam 7/.....	118	15.3	18	1.5	16	.6
Hawaii.....	36	15.0	20	3.9	40	2.4
Idaho.....	62	42.4	29	8.9	27	(6/)
Illinois.....	50	1.3	34	5.3	52	5.2
Indiana.....	46	2.1	56	.7	20	(6/)
Iowa.....	77	13.5	63	1.0	34	3.2
Kansas.....	80	13.5	35	4.6	37	3.5
Kentucky.....	190	40.2	128	7.2	51	1.2
Louisiana.....	490	1.9	129	10.8	56	2.6
Maine.....	97	4.4	43	4.5	38	10.3
Maryland.....	40	48.0	18	4.3	52	2.9
Massachusetts.....	83	51.6	65	4.7	42	3.4
Michigan.....	64	8.2	32	3.1	37	7.9
Minnesota.....	78	38.6	48	2.7	31	7.2
Mississippi.....	361	---	185	16.9	70	.7
Missouri.....	189	---	5/ 148	6.5	53	3.2
Montana.....	63	25.9	53	4.6	22	5.9
Nebraska.....	62	16.9	59	3.9	26	(6/)
Nevada.....	102	3.8	59	---	26	2.6
New Hampshire.....	59	28.8	58	1.8	15	4.4
New Jersey.....	22	9.2	20	2.3	37	8/ 4.9
New Mexico.....	164	.9	62	8.0	51	.6
New York.....	30	20.3	26	3.5	69	6.9
North Carolina.....	118	7.6	162	8.8	45	1.2
North Dakota.....	79	24.3	21	5.4	24	2.9
Ohio.....	85	---	49	3.6	38	8.3
Oklahoma.....	303	4.4	101	11.5	65	(6/)
Oregon.....	48	20.5	39	8.2	38	(6/)
Pennsylvania.....	38	10.0	5/ 230	3.3	52	3.8
Puerto Rico.....	189	26.9	92	15.7	127	.5
Rhode Island.....	57	109.7	19	6.1	58	8.8
South Carolina.....	144	7.7	127	7.0	22	.6
South Dakota.....	82	17.2	26	3.3	33	2.2
Tennessee.....	132	28.7	84	6.7	45	.8
Texas.....	264	---	70	1.8	18	(6/)
Utah.....	66	35.1	29	10.0	39	1.0
Vermont.....	120	3.3	50	6.5	28	(6/)
Virgin Islands.....	183	177.9	42	2.3	52	5.3
Virginia.....	40	12.2	43	2.9	22	1.8
Washington.....	103	36.5	37	12.0	45	4.8
West Virginia.....	76	40.6	66	5.9	117	1.6
Wisconsin.....	62	13.7	29	3.0	21	5.0
Wyoming.....	82	1.0	31	4.1	24	5.4

1/ Based on civilian population as of January 1, 1966; estimated by the Bureau of the Census. 2/ Based on data for 47 States with programs in operation. Rate including population for States not making MAA payments is 15.1 per 1,000 aged persons. 3/ Based on data for 46 States. See footnote 6. 4/ Less than 0.05. 5/ Includes recipients of payments made without Federal participation. Recipient rates excluding these recipients are as follows: California, 106; Missouri, 121; and Pennsylvania, 119. 6/ Number of persons aided not currently available. 7/ November data; December data not received. 8/ Includes an unknown number of persons receiving medical care, hospitalization, and burial only.

Old-age, survivors, and disability insurance benefits, summary data, January 1966

CURRENT MONTH DATA

Type of benefit	Benefits awarded in month		Benefits awarded in current-payment status, end of month			Amount of benefits paid 1/ in month (in thousands)
	Number	Average amount	Number	Monthly rate (in thousands)	Average amount	
Total, OASI and DI	438,985	---	---	---	---	$1,608,550
Total, OASI	389,227	---	---	---	---	1,468,596
Monthly benefits, OASI and DI	351,553	---	21,052,936	$1,531,747	---	1,590,075
Monthly benefits, OASI	301,795	---	19,289,633	1,409,362	---	1,450,121
Monthly benefits, DI	49,758	---	1,763,303	122,385	---	139,954
Old-age (retired-worker)	135,455	$94.52	11,179,299	939,475	$84.04	944,912
Disability (disabled-worker)	21,233	101.16	997,293	97,533	97.80	109,630
Wife's or husband's (OASI and DI)	38,045	44.46	2,817,226	121,332	43.07	125,460
Wife's or husband's (OASI)	32,086	46.12	2,620,980	114,494	43.68	116,936
Wife's or husband's (DI)	5,959	35.49	196,246	6,839	34.85	8,524
Widow's or widower's	38,159	74.73	2,397,339	176,904	73.79	184,504
Parent's	236	82.52	35,221	2,679	76.06	2,856
Child's (OASI and DI)	109,608	---	3,152,216	162,824	---	189,682
Child's (OASI--total)	87,042	---	2,582,452	144,811	---	167,882
Child's (OASI--life) 2/	20,114	42.09	473,245	15,327	32.39	17,560
Child's (OASI--survivor) 2/	66,928	67.03	2,109,207	129,484	61.39	150,322
Child's (DI)	22,566	33.96	569,764	18,013	31.62	21,800
Mother's	8,817	68.32	474,342	31,000	65.35	33,031
Lump-sum death payments	87,432	3/226.40	---	---	---	18,475

COMPARATIVE DATA

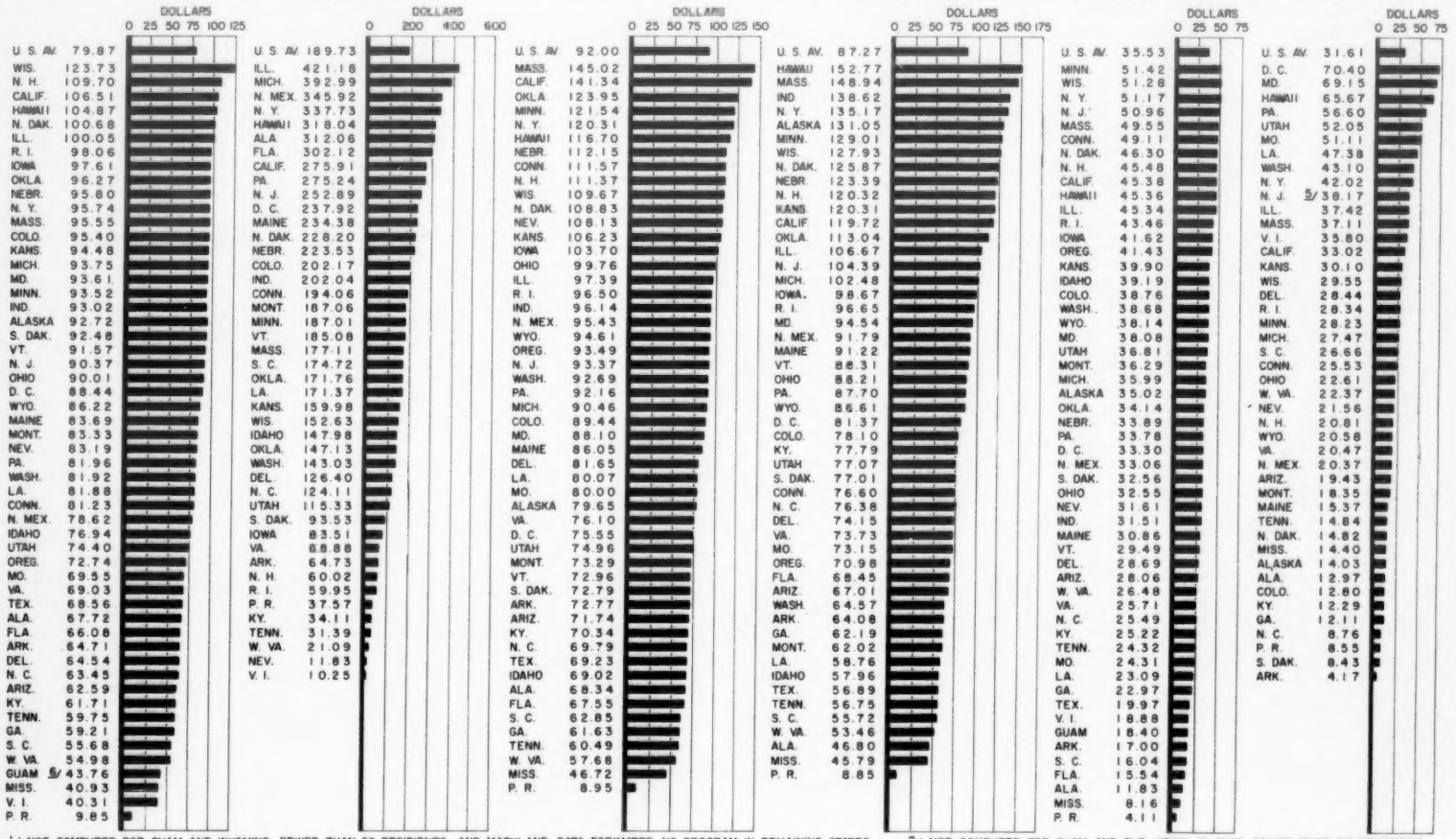
Item	January 1966	December 1965	January 1965
Number of benefits in current-payment status, end of month:			
Total, OASI and DI	21,052,936	20,866,767	19,879,857
Total, OASI	19,289,633	19,127,716	18,301,623
Total, DI	1,763,303	1,739,051	1,578,234
Amount of benefits paid (in thousands):			
Total, OASI and DI	$1,608,550	$1,607,154	$1,379,704
Total, OASI	1,468,596	1,468,063	1,264,034
Total, DI	139,954	139,091	115,669
Number of old-age (retired-worker) benefits:			
Awarded	135,455	128,123	95,181
In current-payment status, end of month	11,179,299	11,100,584	10,709,916
Average old-age (retired-worker) benefit:			
Awarded	$94.52	$88.25	$87.58
In current-payment status, end of month	84.04	83.92	77.72
Number of disability insurance (disabled-worker) benefits:			
Awarded	21,233	21,069	17,744
In current-payment status, end of month	997,293	988,074	902,099
Average disability insurance (disabled-worker) benefit:			
Awarded	$101.16	$101.28	$93.24
In current-payment status, end of month	97.80	97.76	91.13
Number of persons aged 62 and over receiving monthly benefits, end of month (OASI and DI) 4/	16,236,000	16,131,000	15,567,000
Number of persons aged 65 and over receiving monthly benefits, end of month (OASI and DI) 4/	14,381,000	14,276,000	13,710,000
Assets of trust funds, end of month (in millions):			
OASI	$16,833	$18,235	$17,945
DI	1,475	1,606	1,939

1/ Exceeds monthly amount of benefits in current-payment status because initial payments include amounts payable for prior months. Distribution by type of monthly benefit estimated.
2/ Distribution by type of claim for OASI child's benefits estimated.
3/ Average lump-sum per worker; 81,605 deceased workers represented in the current month's lump-sum awards.
4/ Numbers estimated to the nearest thousand.

Source: Division of the Actuary, Social Security Administration.

AVERAGE MONTHLY PUBLIC ASSISTANCE PAYMENT PER RECIPIENT, DECEMBER 1965

(EXCEPT FOR GENERAL ASSISTANCE, INCLUDES VENDOR PAYMENTS FOR MEDICAL CARE.)

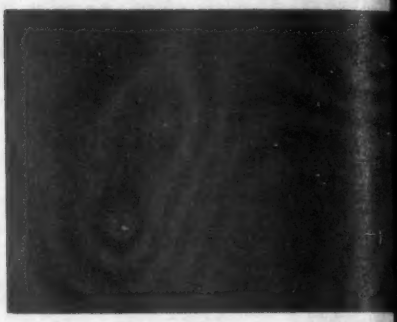


1/ NOT COMPUTED FOR GUAM AND WYOMING; FEWER THAN 50 RECIPIENTS; AND MARYLAND, DATA ESTIMATED. NO PROGRAM IN REMAINING STATES. 2/ NOT COMPUTED FOR GUAM AND THE VIRGIN ISLANDS, FEWER THAN 50 RECIPIENTS.
3/ NO PROGRAM FOR NEVADA. NOT COMPUTED FOR GUAM AND THE VIRGIN ISLANDS, FEWER THAN 50 RECIPIENTS. 4/ NOT COMPUTED FOR GUAM, FEWER THAN 50 RECIPIENTS; AND FLORIDA, IDAHO, INDIANA, IOWA, NEBRASKA, OKLAHOMA, OREGON, TEXAS, AND VERMONT, DATA NOT AVAILABLE. 5/ BASED ON DATA INCLUDING AN UNKNOWN NUMBER OF CASES RECEIVING MEDICAL CARE, HOSPITALIZATION, AND BURIAL ONLY, AND TOTAL PAYMENTS FOR THESE SERVICES.
6/ NOVEMBER DATA; DECEMBER DATA NOT RECEIVED.

DEPARTMENT OF
EALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Welfare Administration
WASHINGTON, D. C. 20201

OFFICIAL BUSINESS

POSTAGE AND FEES PAID
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF H. E. W.



APRIL
1966
Vol 4 No

NCE DELINQUENCY AND YOUTH DEVELOPMENT

PRIL
966
No